

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF PREDISPOSITION
AND COMMUNICATION STYLE ON
COUNSELING OUTCOMES
IN INTERRACIAL COUNSELING INTERACTIONS

By

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This study investigated how clients' predispositions toward counseling interact with counselors' communication styles in initial interracial interactions on evaluations of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. Specifically, this study tests social exchange theory by proposing two models (1) uncertainty reduction; and (2) power; that explain how clients may assess rewards and costs from communication with counselors.

Subjects first completed the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale. Scenario/scripts consisting of one of four possible conditions: (1) same culture for counselor client/direct counselor communication style, or (2) same culture/indirect communication style, or (3) different culture/direct communication style, or (4) different

culture/indirect communication style were used as treatment stimuli. Each subject, assuming the role of the client, was randomly assigned to read one scenario/script. Subjects then evaluated the counseling interaction by responding to the Counselor Evaluation Inventory and the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory. Each subject also indicated the likelihood he/she would return to a second counseling interaction with the counselor.

Results revealed no significant interactions between clients' predispositions toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style. Predicted correlations among counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling were statistically supported and in a positive direction. Two hypotheses for the uncertainty reduction model were supported. No hypotheses for the power model were supported.

The most significant conclusions drawn from this study were that culture did not play a salient role, and that clients' rewards/costs assessments of counselors' communication styles in initial interactions were partially explained by the uncertainty reduction model. As a result, a new social exchange model is proposed for future research to test clients' appraisals of rewards and costs of communication with counselors.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The demographics of the population of the United States are forecast to undergo dramatic changes over the next twenty years. As a result of increased immigration and birth rates, the membership of traditional minority groups in the United States such as (i.e., Hispanics, Asian-Americans and African-Americans) is expected to grow more rapidly than the White/Caucasian population (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). In 2015 A.D., these minority groups will constitute over 35 percent of the United States' population (Woods & Poole Economics, Inc., 1992). This change in demographics, known as "the Browning of America" (Henry, 1990), will make the nation a more multicultural, multiracial and multilingual society (Johnston & Packer, 1987; Offerman & Gowing, 1990; Sue, 1994). One result of a multicultural society is increased diversity in the ways individuals seek help from one another.

Personal counseling is one way that people help people. As the population in the United States increasingly diversifies, individuals trained as counselors will need to incorporate culturally-relevant communication strategies into their counseling skills in order to be effective

(Westwood & Ishiyama, 1990). As a result, there is a need to more fully and clearly comprehend the dynamics of the communication processes involved in intercultural counseling. The present study was conducted to address that need. The study specifically examined clients' predispositions toward counseling, the cultural composition of the counselor-client dyads, and the counselor's communication style as factors that may influence a client's perception of counseling effectiveness and communication satisfaction of an initial counselor-client interaction, and the client's likelihood of returning to a second counseling interaction.

In order to build a case for looking at communication in intercultural counseling, salient arguments are presented in this chapter; they will address particular variables in communication that may affect the counseling process. A rationale is established to empirically assess interactions of these variables and to determine the influence these effects may have on intercultural counseling. According to Sue and Zane (1987), clients look for a "gift" from counseling. That is, clients seek to identify beneficial outcomes from their counseling. What are considered "gifts" in counseling and communication may differ; one source of that difference is cultural diversity. In order to understand how counseling may be influenced by perceptions of this "gift," a basic understanding of counseling and its

relationship to communication is needed. That understanding furnishes the specific context for the communication issues in counselor-client interactions investigated in the present study.

The Nature of Counseling

Counseling involves a series of contacts between a professionally trained counselor and a client seeking help, wherein the focus is solely on the client and his or her problems (Dillard, 1983; Sullivan, 1953;). From a Eurocentric perspective, a counselor's goal is to help an individual experiencing personal problems with work or social relationships to bring about a change in his or her outlook (Barnlund, 1968).

The term "counseling" encompasses a variety of contexts in which humans help one another. Some counseling contexts include educational counseling, psychological counseling, career counseling, sex counseling, religious counseling, and legal counseling. The study reported here focuses on counseling that involves a client who is having difficulties in his/her communication and social interactions with others in an educational setting. Although various counseling contexts focus attention on different human needs, what is common to all of them is that an individual seeks help from someone else for something that he or she cannot, or has not been able to, work out alone (Young, 1992).

Despite the help that counseling can provide for those with personal adjustment and mental health problems, many individuals believe that counseling also can be stigmatizing. An individual may believe that being labeled as someone in counseling will cause him or her to be socially alienated from others (Goffman, 1963). He or she may believe that going to counseling is a tacit admission of weakness, and that problems should, but cannot, be handled independently. In addition, based on cultural and social training, some individuals may believe that discussion of personal problems ought to be carried out only in private, in the home, or within the privacy of a family. By contrast, others may recognize that counseling is beneficial and considered "normal" in today's society, and that discussing personal problems with a professionally trained counselor is both common and appropriate (Pedersen, 1985). Whether an individual has a positive, neutral, or negative predisposition toward counseling, those views may affect the communication processes involved in counseling.

Predispositions and Counseling

An individual's predisposition in any context is an anticipatory position toward an event (Mortensen & Sereno, 1970). Higginbotham (1977) claims that predispositions toward counseling are influenced by an individual's positive and negative attitudes about the help counseling can provide. Such predispositions can affect the overall

success of counseling. In particular, clients believe that a stranger (counselor) cannot understand them. That belief may be enhanced when the counselor is an individual who is culturally different from the client.

Because a client seeks help from a counselor who provides help, the relationship between a counselor and client may be defined as "complementary." A complementary relationship can foster differences between two individuals in a relationship (Watzlawick, Beavin, & Jackson, 1967). In counseling, a client may self-disclose, but without the benefit of reciprocal self-disclosure from the counselor. In fact the client's self-disclosure is analyzed and evaluated by the counselor. Clients may differ in their initial willingness or predisposition to engage in a one-down relationship with a stranger, even a stranger who is professionally qualified. That hesitation may be enhanced further when the topic concerns a client's personal problems. Thus, differences in clients' predispositions toward counseling may affect the success of counseling and subsequent return to counseling.

Despite the logical connection between an individual's predispositions toward counseling and counseling outcomes, little research has investigated such a link. According to Johnson (1977), and Higginbotham (1977), clients' predispositions toward counseling are seldom considered by researchers. "There is a need to examine how clients

approach therapy with well-defined and individually diverse role expectations, therapist preferences, forms of support anticipated, types of advice sought, or type of medical care desired" (Higginbotham, 1977, p. 111). Predispositions toward counseling not only influence an individual's motivation to seek counseling, they may affect the communication between counselor and client, and therefore influence counseling outcomes. Because predisposition toward counseling may affect counseling outcomes, and little is know about this subject, the present study included clients' predispositions toward counseling as an important factor.

Counseling as an Interpersonal Phenomenon

Typically, an interpersonal relationship between two people involves interactions over a period of time. It is characterized by mutual influence; the behavior of each takes into consideration the behavior of the other (Hinde, 1979). Strong (1968) argues that successful counseling promotes and influences an interpersonal relationship between counselor and client. The type of influence counselors exercise with their clients is operationalized through different "schools" of counseling. Well-known schools include psychodynamic counseling, cognitive-behavioral counseling, gestalt therapy, behavioral counseling, existential-humanistic counseling (Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987). Although each school of counseling

has its advocates, behavioral counseling and existential-humanistic counseling are the focus for this study because of the particular way each defines the interpersonal relationship between counselor and client.

In behavioral counseling, the counselor takes an active role in providing direction for the client (London, 1969; Franks, 1982). "Behavioral counseling rests on ... examining the client and the client's environment and, jointly with the client, developing specific interventions to alter life conditions" (Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987, p. 234). The definition of the problem, an understanding of the full context of the problem, and the establishment of clear goals for the client are central to the process of behavioral counseling. Terms used to describe behavioral counseling include action therapy, directive counseling, counselor-centered therapy, and the active approach in counseling (Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987).

In contrast to behavioral counseling, existential-humanistic counseling assumes that individuals are unique and potentially empowered to determine their own destinies; the locus of control is believed to lie within the individual. The task of the counselor in this process is to empathize with the client and to facilitate the client's decision making (Rogers, 1961). Terms used to describe existential-humanistic counseling include: indirect counseling, nondirective counseling, person-centered

counseling, client-centered counseling, and Rogerian therapy (Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987).

In summary, both behavioral counseling and existential-humanistic counseling are effective with some clients (Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987). In both approaches, the creation of a therapeutic relationship between counselor and client is contingent upon effective interpersonal communication.

Counseling as a Communication Phenomenon

According to Dance (1970), communication is "the process by which we understand others and in turn endeavor to be understood by them. It is dynamic, constantly changing, and shifting in response to the total situation" (p. 204). While communication is important in all relationships in life--family, society, work--nowhere is the necessity of clear and relevant communication more acute than in counseling (Loeffler, 1970). Labov and Fanshel (1977) contend that because counseling is, more than anything else, a verbal conversational activity, the lack of attention devoted to counseling from a communication perspective is surprising. However, one area that has attracted attention centers on the influence of counselor communication style on counseling.

Communication style consists of "the signals that are provided to help process, interpret, filter, or understand literal meaning" (Norton, 1983, p. 47). Taxonomies of

communication styles used by counselors typically discriminate between so-called direct and indirect counselor communication styles (e.g., Hill's Counselor Verbal Response Category System, 1978; Zimmer & Pepyne's Taxonomy of Counselor Responses, 1971).

The counselor who employs a direct communication style, collects information, analyzes the situation, gives opinions, and suggests solutions, Overall, a counselor's direct communication style attempts to reduce the client's uncertainty about counseling, and lays out a specific route for the client to follow to address the problem (Downs, Smeyak, & Martin, 1980). By contrast, the counselor who uses an indirect communication style, plays the role of a facilitator. That counselor focuses on becoming involved in the process of helping the client reach a solution to a problem instead of formulating the actual content of the solution itself. An indirect communication style requires the counselor to listen and empathize with the client, and to help the client probe his or her own thinking. Overall, a counselor's indirect communication style attempts to empower the client to acquire an internal locus of control, to make decisions, and to solve his or her own problems (Downs, Smeyak, & Martin, 1980).

Although direct and indirect communication styles are conceptually distinct, they may be thought of on a continuum, rather than as opposites. Downs, Smeyak, and

Martin (1980) contend that "Rarely will you have an interview that is completely directive or completely nondirective. Yet, these different orientations affect the structure of the interview, the amount of participation, and the role that the counselor plays" (p. 193). The communication style of a counselor often corresponds with a particular school of counseling. Ivey (1988) reports that the direct communication style often has been associated with behavioral counseling. Likewise, the indirect communication style often has been associated with existential-humanistic counseling. In fact, behavioral counseling and existential-humanistic counseling often are respectively referred to as "directive counseling" and "nondirective counseling," due to the counselor's communication style associated with each school.

Research suggests that counselors become accustomed to using a particular style of communication and tend to employ this communication style regularly in their counseling (Wyatt & Parham, 1985). Counselors may have been trained implicitly to favor one communication style over another (Pedersen, 1985). Although using one communication style regularly may be comfortable for the counselor, that particular communication style may not always match the needs of the client. Because clients look for a "gift" in their communication with counselors (Sue, 1990; Westwood & Ishiyama, 1990), the communication style of the counselor

may influence such perceived benefits, and thereby and ultimately may influence counseling outcomes. Therefore, counselor communication style was included as a factor in the present study.

The "Gift" in Counseling

Sue and Zane (1987) posit that clients look for benefits or a "gift" from their initial counseling interactions:

If therapists succeed in conceptualizing their client's problem in a manner consistent with the client's world view, client's may be more likely to "accept" reassurance from the therapist. On the other hand, clients who feel that their therapists do not understand them and their problems may perceive attempts at reassurance as condescending or pro forma gestures. (Sue & Zane, 1987, p. 45)

More specifically, Sue and Zane (1987) contend that clients look for certain characteristics, or gifts, in their counselor's communication. Gifts that a counselor can offer through communication include: (1) reducing uncertainty, wherein the client is made aware of what is expected of him or her and what direction counseling will take, and (2) helping the client learn how to make decisions independently in order to gain personal control to cope with particular problems (Sue & Zane, 1987).

When clients obtain certain benefits or gifts from counseling both counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction are enhanced and achieved. Counseling effectiveness pertains to the overall usefulness of

counseling to address problems, and includes the ways in which a counselor's personal qualities such as credibility and trustworthiness influence counseling (Haase & Miller, 1968). Client satisfaction is an individual's personal contentment about how counseling addresses his or her needs (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). Although counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction are separate factors conceptually, they are positively related to each other: If counseling effectiveness is high, client satisfaction is high; if counseling effectiveness is low, client satisfaction is low (Haase & Miller, 1968).

A major factor influencing the outcomes of counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction is the extent to which counselor and client establish a clear mutual definition of the client's problem. If definition of the problem and the expectations between the counselor and the client are discrepant, then the probability of successful treatment and opportunities for future communication decrease. Sue (1981) reported an example of nonmutuality in defining the client's problem. A student saw a counselor for vocational help. The counselor set a goal of uncovering the dynamics of deep-seated motives and decisions. However, the client felt extremely uncomfortable with the counselor's probing issues that seemed unrelated to the client's goal. Due to the way the counselor communicated with this client, both counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction were reduced.

Both counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction are influenced by communication between counselors and clients. Communication satisfaction is a vehicle for assessing the results of communication encounters and, in counseling, plays an integral role in the achievement of counseling effectiveness as well as client satisfaction outcomes (Hecht, 1978). "Communication satisfaction is...an effect crucial to concepts of psychological health and, therefore, is a useful construct which should prove useful in the study of communication behavior" (Hecht, 1978, p. 253). For example, if a client tells a counselor his or her problem, and the counselor responds with messages that let the client know that the counselor truly understands the problem, then not only are counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction enhanced, but communication satisfaction as well. Thus, counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, and communication satisfaction are indices of clients' evaluations of counseling, and are included as the outcome variable in the present study.

In summary, counseling is a process that sometimes occurs when one human attempts to help another human with a problem or concern; clients vary in their predisposition to receive such help. Counseling is an interpersonal phenomenon, wherein counselors are guided in their attempts to help clients by using different schools of therapy. Different schools of therapy can rely on different styles of

counselor communication. Clients look for "gifts" from counseling. Counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction and communication satisfaction are affected by the counselor's ability to provide such gifts for a client. The addition of cultural/racial differences between counselor and client present further challenges to a counselor's ability to offer a "gift" to a client (Atkinson, 1983; Sue, 1994).

The Nature of Intercultural Counseling

Intercultural counseling is defined as a helping relationship in which clients are racially, ethnically, or culturally different (Vontress, 1988). In this study, the term "intercultural counseling" is used to describe counseling relationships in which the counselor and client differ with regard to culture, race, and/or ethnicity. However, because the focus of intercultural counseling often is on racial or subcultural differences between counselors and clients in the United States, the term interracial counseling also is used sometimes.

As the cultural diversity of the population in the United States increases, counselors will experience interactions with clients from cultural backgrounds different from their own. At present, most counselors are White/Caucasian (Parker, 1988; Pedersen, 1985; Pedersen, 1987; Sue, 1990). Despite efforts to increase the number of minorities entering counseling, the White/Caucasian majority

in the counseling profession likely will continue into the next century (Parker, 1988; Sue, 1990).

Because demographic trends indicate that intercultural/interracial counseling will become more prevalent, counselors need to learn sensitivity to clients' history, values, beliefs, and cultural characteristics (Pedersen, 1987). In addition, counselors must be sensitive to racial discrimination and how that discrimination may affect a client (Herr & Cramer, 1988). Counselors need to consider the stereotypes and problems that face minority clients (Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1989). Counselors also need to their own beliefs and attitudes regarding the culturally different client, and be familiar with their own racial consciousness (Hulnick, 1977; Pedersen, 1985; Pedersen, 1987).

No empirical data presently exist on the degree to which the presence of knowledge and skills act as facilitators of credible and effective interracial counseling (Leong, 1986; Taffe, & Sadowsky, 1991). Moreover, what counselors think they may know about a client's culture often is based on inaccurate information and stereotypes. As a consequence, ineffective communication and treatments occur (Smith, 1977). Sue (1990) suggests that the locus of the problem may lie in the training of counselors; as a result, counselors often are either deficient in relating culture/racial-specific skills

in counseling, or are comfortable using only one particular school of counseling. These factors are likely to affect counselors' communication with clients.

Communication in Intercultural Counseling

Intercultural communication occurs when a message produced in one culture is processed in another culture (Samovar & Porter, 1994). Sue (1990) contends that one's culture largely determines communication behavior. The influence of culture becomes pronounced when communication is attempted in counseling with members of a minority group. Often reared in a White/Caucasian middle-class society, counselors may assume that certain behaviors or rules of speaking are universal; such assumptions may create problems for counselors in communicating with minority clients (Sue, 1990). Wrenn (1962) charged that many White/Caucasian counselors are "culturally encapsulated" when it comes to communicating with minority clients. Cultural encapsulation means that counselors treat all clients according to the practices and rules of the majority culture with little or no acknowledgement of the client's particular culture (Draguns, 1976; Wrenn, 1962).

The diversification of the population in the United States presents a challenge to the nation's system of education to "clarify communication style differences that may be misunderstood by teachers and counselors" (Sue, 1994, p. 384). For an effective counselor-client relationship to

take place, counselors need to be familiar with their clients' culture and to minimize miscommunication (Todisco & Salomone, 1991).

Interestingly, there appear to be no significant differences between races regarding reasons for going to counseling (Parker & McDavis, 1983). Research on the ways counselor communication styles affect counseling exchanges between counselors and members of minority groups has produced equivocal results at best (Atkinson, Maruyama, & Matsui, 1978; Hill, 1978). The issue warrants further investigation, especially because communication in intercultural counseling directly influences the success or failure of counseling outcomes including premature termination of counseling (Sue, 1990).

Premature Termination of Counseling and the Minority Client

Premature termination of counseling occurs when a client fails not to return to subsequent counseling sessions, when a counselor believes such sessions are needed (Sue, 1990). In the present study, the term "initial interaction" is used to describe the first face-to-face counseling session between a counselor and a client. What occurs during the initial interaction between a counselor and client clearly is important: "The interaction between two strangers, for instance, creates a relational history, and this history will affect the next interaction; they can never return to being total strangers again"

(Stewart & Cash, 1985, p. 13). Impressions from initial counseling may carry over to subsequent counseling interactions; however, they also can prompt a client to terminate counseling.

Over half of the minority clients in the United States seeking mental health counseling fail to return for a second counseling session, while under 30% of clients from the White/Caucasian majority culture fail to return (Sue, 1990). The higher rate of non-return by minority clients suggests that counselors are perceived to not meet the needs of the clients (Sue, 1990). Because premature termination of counseling is a significant issue in intercultural counseling, likelihood of return to counseling is considered in the present study.

Predisposition toward counseling, counselor communication style and counselors' communication styles take on particular importance in intercultural counseling. Extant research has not adequately addressed the interactions of these variables in influencing assessments of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and the likelihood of return to counseling. By looking at the relationships among these variables, important issues about the nature of counseling and communication are raised. One issue concerns the gifts that clients look for in interactions with counselors. Because these gifts are likely to influence counseling

outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, as well as a client's likelihood of return to counseling, how clients assess what is and what is not a gift needs to be understood. The following section provides a theoretical rationale for assessing such gifts.

Social Exchange in Counseling: A Rationale

Because there is evidence that clients seek counseling in terms of social rewards and costs (Sue & Zane, 1987), social exchange theory appeared to be a worthwhile and practical theory to employ in this study. (The theory of social exchange will be covered in more depth in Chapter 2.)

Overall, in social exchange theory, relationships are perceived in terms of rewards and costs. A profit are the rewards gained from an exchange less the cost incurred. A cost is that which is lost from the exchange, such as foregoing the benefits of being engaged in a different exchange (Homans, 1961). Homans' social exchange theory views relationships as evolving through the exchange of commodities such as information, time, and power (1961). In order for an exchange to continue, the relationship must produce a profit, and the rewards must outweigh costs. An exchange that is beneficial continues, whereas, an exchange that is costly terminates (Homans, 1961).

Many of the terms and constructs used in Homans' social exchange theory are directly applicable to counseling exchanges. Clients may look at counseling in terms of costs

and rewards; when counseling is unprofitable (ie., costs exceed rewards), it terminates; when counseling is profitable (ie., rewards exceed costs), it continues.

Individuals' particular perceptions of what is beneficial and what is costly may differ (Blau, 1964). Discrepancies in weighing rewards and costs may affect counseling outcomes such as counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, as well as the likelihood of return to counseling.

Complications may occur when the counselor believes that he or she is giving the client what he/she needs. However, the gift communicated may or may not be the gift the client was seeking. One reason for this disparity in intercultural counseling is that the cultural or racial group the client represents may not recognize or give weight to the value of the gift in the same way that the counselor's culture or racial group values that gift.

Research is lacking regarding counselor communication of what is relatively more beneficial in counseling clients from minority groups, reducing client uncertainty, or empowering the client. In order to address this issue, two separate social exchange models were proposed and tested in the present study. One model was built on the assumption that individuals assess the rewards and costs of counseling in terms of uncertainty reduction in order to increase predictability both about themselves and others in a

counseling relationship (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). A second model was built on the assumption that individuals assess the rewards and costs of counseling in terms of power, that is, individuals feel empowered if they are given the opportunity to make their own decisions and control the direction of counseling.

Overall, the present study draws from the theory of social exchange; separate models of uncertainty reduction and power are proposed and tested to attempt to understand how clients assess both rewards and costs from a counselors communication style in a counseling exchange. These models may provide meaningful information on the ways that counselor communication style influences what is or what is not seen as a gift for clients, how this perception affects the outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, as well as the likelihood of return to counseling. One model is not assumed to be better than the other, nor is one communication style presumed to be better than the other.

The Problem and Plan of the Study

The general research question addressed in this study is: How do a client's predisposition toward counseling, the cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style, and the interactions among these factors, influence clients' appraisals of counseling

effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication
satisfaction, and the likelihood of return to counseling?

Chapter 2 provides a review of literature on communication and counseling, and the theories that guide the present study. Chapter 3 describes methods used in the study. Chapter 4 reports the analyses of the data. Chapter 5 consists of a discussion of the findings and conclusions.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

An Overview

The present study investigated how clients' predisposition toward counseling, counselor communication style, and cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad in influencing counseling outcomes. This chapter reviews relevant literature, beginning with the theoretical framework for this study. The literature review focuses predisposition toward counseling, cultural and racial composition of the counselor-client dyad, and communication style as they pertain to counseling outcomes. Hypotheses predicted interactions among the independent variables in influencing counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling, as well as relationships among the dependent variables.

Because the basis of benefit-cost assessment varies depending upon counselor communication style, two social exchange models were proposed: (1) a model that employs uncertainty reduction to explain benefits and costs in clients' communication with counselors; and (2) a model that employs power to explain benefits and costs in clients'

communication with counselors. Competing sets of hypotheses are generated from the two models.

Theoretical Perspectives

The theoretical perspective of social exchange was used to explain the communication and counseling phenomena under investigation in this study. Benefits and costs of counselors' communication styles resulting from social exchange can be assessed through different alternatives. Two such alternatives are through uncertainty reduction and through power. These two perspectives of uncertainty reduction and power and each perspective's relationship to the theory of social exchange are also presented.

Social Exchange Theory

Social exchange theory proposes that relationships are managed in terms of perceived rewards and costs. From this perspective, relationships evolve through the exchange of commodities, such as information, skill, power each individual contributes to the exchange. A profit are the rewards gained from an exchange, less the costs incurred. A cost is that which is given up from the exchange, such as foregoing the benefits of being engaged in a different exchange (Homans, 1961). Homans asserted that "the open secret of human exchange is to give the other man behavior that is more valuable to you than it is costly to him" (p. 62).

Investments include commodities, for example, one's skill, effort, education, training, experience, age, sex, and ethnic background. Social exchange theory posits that the more investments one makes, the more rewards that individual will expect to receive. Likewise, the more investments, the more costs incurred. For an exchange to continue, rewards must outnumber costs; an exchange that produces more rewards than costs is profitable, and tends to continue. An exchange that produces more costs than benefits represents a loss, and tends to be terminated (Homans, 1961).

Individuals in a dyadic exchange seek "distributive justice." Distributive justice occurs when benefits gained for each individual are proportional to the investments each makes toward the exchange (Homans, 1961). In addition, when an inequality between investment proportions occurs, a feeling of injustice is experienced, and the individual for whom the ratio of profits is smaller to investments will feel deprived (Adams, 1965).

Social exchange theory maintains that individuals anticipate benefits from mutual association that individually are unattainable, thereby increasing motivation to form a relationship (Altman & Taylor, 1973). "The formation, maintenance, and dissolution of relationships depends on how the relational partners calculate the

benefit/cost ratios of existing and anticipated interaction" (Applegate & Leichty, 1984, p. 35).

Social exchange theory posits that individuals determine benefits and costs in different ways (Blau, 1964). The commodity of a client's predisposition toward counseling treats a client's high predisposition toward counseling as a benefit and a low predisposition toward counseling as a cost. The commodity of the cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad treat as a benefit when counselor and client are from the same culture. By contrast, when the counselor and client are from different cultures it is considered a cost. As for the communication style of the counselor of direct and indirect, this commodity can be treated as either benefit or cost depending upon how the client's assessment. One way that individuals determine the ratio of rewards and costs is through the reduction of uncertainty. In order to gain a further understanding of how individuals use uncertainty reduction in assessments of rewards and costs, a literature review of uncertainty reduction theory is warranted.

An Uncertainty Reduction Perspective of Social Exchange

In 1975, Berger and Calabrese advanced a developmental theory to explain initial interpersonal communication interactions that was based on uncertainty reduction: "Central to the theory is the assumption that when strangers meet their primary concern is one of uncertainty reduction

or increasing predictability about the behavior of both themselves and others in the interaction" (p. 100).

Basically, uncertainty reduction theory assumes that when individuals meet for the first time they are motivated to reduce uncertainty (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Information is defined as a quantity of possible choices or alternatives, and when there is no longer any more alternatives, the situation becomes completely predictable (Shannon & Weaver, 1949). Information in the communication process is also conceptualized as "what you do not know what is going to happen next" (Darnell, 1972, p. 158). Individuals seek information not just to reduce present uncertainty, but also to assess possible future interactions (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Within the larger framework of social exchange, individuals are motivated to reduce uncertainty to determine if an outcome will be either positive or negative (Sunnafrank, 1986).

The different ways individuals communicate culturally in initial interactions influence how uncertainty may be reduced. African-Americans and White/Caucasians, for instance, show several differences in their interpersonal communication during initial interactions (Kochman, 1974; Rich, 1976; Shuter, 1982). For example, White/Caucasian Americans gain information by asking questions while African-Americans gain information by the use of leading or challenging statements. Reliance on different ways of

communicating has led Shuter (1982) to propose that different racial groups living within the United States reduce uncertainty differently in initial interactions.

Uncertainty reduction theory has been suggested as an explanation of interpersonal interactions in a variety of contexts (Berger, 1979). Tolerance for uncertainty varies substantially among individuals in different countries (Hofstede, 1980). Such tolerance for uncertainty is sometimes influenced by the expected ease of communication. Simard (1981) reported that individuals expect communication with someone who is racially and culturally different to be more difficult than with someone from the same culture. Thus, when an individual anticipates that communication will result in difficulty, uncertainty increases, and later interactions are likely to be avoided.

Most of the extant research on uncertainty reduction and communication within intercultural and interracial contexts has been done by Gudykunst and his associates. Gudykunst (1983a; 1983b; 1984; 1986) tested uncertainty reduction theory as a way to explain initial interactions between strangers, and concluded that an individual makes more assumptions about the behavior of a stranger from another culture than he or she does about the behavior of a stranger from his or her own culture. Research on interracial interactions also suggests that more benefits are expected when an interracial comparison is positive or

similar than when the interracial comparison is negative or dissimilar (Gudykunst, 1985; Gudykunst, 1991; Gudykunst & Hammer, 1987; 1988; Gudykunst, Sodehani, & Sonoda, 1987).

While uncertainty reduction is one way through which individuals may determine rewards and costs in an exchange, another way is through the use of interpersonal power. In order to gain a better understanding of how individuals use interpersonal power in assessments of rewards and costs a literature review of power in social exchange follows.

A Power Perspective of Social Exchange

All human interaction involves power. Power has been defined in a number of ways, including one's ability to control one's own and/or another's behavior. Power can explain how goals get accomplished, and whether rewards or costs result (Johnson and Johnson, 1987).

The underlying assumption is that individual's basically act to gain something from somebody else in exchange for something else. An individual has as much power as he or she lets others perceive that they have. Power is conceptualized as one's perception of access to influential resources (Marwell & Schmitt, 1967). Power involves one's ability to influence the outcomes of another individual's experience (Siebold, Cantrill, & Meyers, 1985; Thibault & Kelley, 1959). Consequently, an individual's expectation of rewards and costs can be manipulated by what he or she believes is the other's influence in delivering on

these rewards and costs (Wheless, Barraclough, & Stewart, 1983).

Interpersonal power, as used in this investigation, is viewed as an individual's willingness or unwillingness to acquiesce to another's efforts to influence him/her. As such, interpersonal power can be evaluated in terms of an individual's "locus of evaluation" (Cline, 1989). Individuals who have an external locus of evaluation are inclined to abide by the expectations and standards of others. By contrast, individuals who have an internal locus of evaluation are guided by their own expectations and are likely to be more regulated by their own standards of behavior (Raskin, 1952; Rogers, 1961).

The theoretical rationale of power in counseling may present a paradox: the most powerful stance one can take in any relationship is to leave responsible power in the hands of each person or group (Rogers, 1977). However, the forces that determine locus of evaluation, decision making, and control may differ according to racial and cultural beliefs.

The power perspective of determining a rewards and costs ratio emphasizes that benefits are achieved if an individual is encouraged to develop directions for him or herself. If, in the exchange, the individual is provided with the power to have control and make decisions, then future exchanges are continued and deemed worthwhile by that person.

Even with a desire to help, one can sometimes do more harm than good in helping another individual. For example, a counselor may get caught up in what Guggenbuhl-Craig (1971) terms a "lust for power" over a client. This lust for power becomes apparent when the counselor recognizes self-defeating behavior on the part of the client. In trying to attempt to change such behavior, the counselor may want to enforce what he/she believes is good for the client. Instead, giving an individual constant advice most likely increases his or her dependence on others, and also discourages decision making characteristic of an internal locus of evaluation (Hanna, 1975; Rogers, 1977; Rogers, 1980).

Uncertainty reduction and power are both methods individuals use to identify benefits and costs from counselors' communication styles. Later in this chapter, hypotheses pertaining to both theoretical methods that explain counselor-client social exchange will be presented.

The following section includes a literature review of (predisposition toward counseling, cultural and racial composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style,) as they pertain interracial counseling.

Interracial Counseling

Some challenging situations in communication can develop when an individual seeks help from a counselor who

reflects a different cultural perspective (Usher, 1989; Westwood & Ishiyama, 1990). In the next part of this chapter, literature is reviewed for three areas, predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style.

Predisposition Toward Counseling

Predispositions include a widespread set of emotional associations that one holds about his or her interactions with others (Lustig & Koester, 1993). A client's predisposition toward counseling is comprised in part by attitudes about the help counseling may provide. Individuals with prior successful counseling experiences may be more predisposed to seek help than those who have had no prior experience with counseling, or who have had experienced a negative outcome as a result of counseling (Higginbotham, 1977).

Perceived similarity, compatibility and liking can affect one's response to counseling (Strong, 1968). If a client believes that a counselor is similar to him or herself, then a predisposition to seek and continue counseling is more likely to occur.

A client's predisposition toward counseling may be affected in cases where the counselor and client are familiar with one another's culture. Familiarity through prior experience with a particular culture has the potential

to lead to confidence in one's communication (Imahori & Lanigan, 1989; Lustig & Koester, 1993). "(Communicators) know how to interact with others whom they might meet, what the probable response of the others might be, and even the type of events which might change the situation" (Brislin, 1981, p. 151).

Due to the complementary nature of the counseling relationship, the potential for successful counseling outcomes is affected more by the counselor's knowledge of the client's culture than by the client's knowledge of the counselor's culture (Sue, 1981). "Counselors who are perceived by their clients as credible (expert and trustworthy) and attractive are able to exert greater influence than those perceived as lacking in credibility and attractiveness" (Sue, 1981, p. 54). A client's predisposition toward counseling might be influenced by what the client believes is the counselor's knowledge and understanding about the client's culture. According to Helms (1984), issues surrounding this question of knowledge of a client's culture impact counselors' communication with their clients, and compel counselors to be cognizant of their own racial consciousness, to know their own beliefs and attitudes regarding other cultures, and to be sensitized to different cultural and racial differences.

The problems for which minority clients seek counseling are no different from the problems of White/Caucasian

clients (Sundberg, 1981; Westbrook, 1978). Because no differences exist in reasons for seeking counseling other factors distinguish White/Caucasian and minority predispositions toward counseling. One is that non-White/Caucasian minorities do not benefit as much from "talk therapy" as do White/Caucasian clients. However, Lorion (1973) found this assumption to be a myth; there were no significant differences in the benefits of talk therapy between minorities and White/Caucasian clients.

Contemporary literature remains inconclusive concerning clients' predispositions toward counseling, and moreso when racial and cultural differences between counselor and client are included. Unlike the dearth of literature on a client's predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad has received a significant amount of attention. A review of literature on cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad follows.

Cultural Composition of the Counselor-Client Dyad

Controversy exists regarding the role race plays in intercultural counseling. Extant literature focuses primarily focuses on racial similarities and dissimilarities in counseling dyads in the United States; most of the literature reviewed in this section concentrates on racial similarity and dissimilarity between counselors and their clients than cultural similarity and dissimilarity.

Some researchers maintain that counselors who are racially similar to their clients are better equipped to understand and to serve as role models (Atkinson, Maruyama, & Matsui, 1978). Atkinson (1983), asserts that when counselors are culturally-sensitive, racial and cultural differences between counselor and client are transcended, resulting in more effective counseling and higher client satisfaction. Others maintain that effective intercultural counseling actually is improbable because of strong racial and cultural barriers (Banks 1980; Kincaid, 1969).

Recently, researchers have tried to determine whether racial similarity between counselors and clients makes a significant difference in counseling outcomes (i.e., effectiveness and client satisfaction) (Atkinson, 1983). Most research focuses on dyads in which the client is African-American and the counselor is White/Caucasian. Researchers have found that African-American clients prefer African-American counselors (Wolkon, Moriwaki, & Williams, 1973; Harrison, 1975) and report a higher rate of return to counseling when counselors are African-American (Heffernon & Bruehl, 1971). Harrison (1975) and Sattler (1977) concluded that clients from a variety of racial groups including African-Americans, Asian, Americans, Hispanics, Native Americans, and White/Caucasians prefer counselors of similar races. A client who prefers a same-race counselor over a different-race often believes that the counselor is in a

better position to empathize with the client and to understand the client's situation (Atkinson, 1983).

Despite evidence that clients prefer same-race counselors, other research concludes that racial dissimilarity is not a formidable barrier (Atkinson, 1983; Griffith; 1977). Research with African-American subjects found no effects due to same-race with regard to counseling outcomes (Cimboric, 1972, 1973; Porche & Banikiotes, 1982). Likewise, research with Hispanic subjects in the United States found no racial similarity effects on counseling outcomes (Acosta & Sheehan, 1976; Furlong, Atkinson, & Casas, 1979; Williams & Kirkland, 1971).

Schmedinghoff (1977), Niemeyer and Fukuyama (1984), and Loesch (1988) argue that what is more important than matching counselor and client by race is matching counselor and client by beliefs and attitudes. Although no clear conclusions concerning race and/or belief similarities, Sue (1990) contended that previous studies on racial similarity "may be less important in forming counseling rapport than genuine acceptance of another's beliefs" (p. 64). Therefore, counselors who are well-trained and sensitive to others' beliefs and values likely can establish effective relationships with racially and culturally different clients (Griffith, 1977; Atkinson, Morten, & Sue, 1989).

Coleman (1993) investigated the impact of race and ethnicity on counselor competence and found that minorities

in the United States do not expect different attitudes or behaviors from counselors than do their White/Caucasian counterparts. Coleman contends that race is not a potential source of inadequate treatment and dissatisfaction, but rather the manner in which race is acknowledged through communication between the counselor and the client.

Although some observations support the notion that clients prefer same-race counselors (e.g. Jackson & Kirchner, 1973; Banks, Berenson, & Carkhuff, 1976), other observations do not (e.g. Ewing, 1974; Schmedinghoff, 1977). Therefore, results regarding same-race/different-race counselor-client relationships are equivocal, and questions remain unanswered (Atkinson, 1983).

Because research has produced equivocal findings, additional investigation is needed on the effects of cultural and racial composition of the counselor-client dyad on counseling outcomes. Along with racial and cultural composition of the counseling dyad, another area that has received attention in the literature focuses on communication between counselor and client, in terms of counselor communication style.

Counselor Communication Style

In broad terms, communication style is defined as "the signals that are provided to help process, interpret, filter, or understand literal meaning" (Norton, 1983, p. 47). Four characteristics mark communication style: it is

observable, it is multifaceted, it is multicollinear, and it is variable, but sufficiently patterned (Norton, 1983). Communication style can be demonstrated through verbal and nonverbal actions. For example, a person who has a lively communication style often displays it through a rapid rate of speech and with animated gestures and body movements. Communication style is multifaceted; every individual has the potential to communicate in a variety of ways with a number of communication styles. Communication style is multicollinear; communication styles are not independent from one another. For example, a dominant communication style is not only expressed through the use of dramatics. Individuals can sometimes express a dominant communication style by being relaxed, steady and confident. Communication style also is variable, but sufficiently patterned. Individuals form communication styles that become habitual and known to others. However, deviations from a particular communication style can and do occur. Sometimes these deviations are spurred by the individual's need to adapt to changing circumstances (Norton, 1983).

The communication style of a counselor plays an important role in counseling. How counselors communicate is crucial in encouraging the client to express his or her feelings. Effective interpersonal communication provides evidence that the counselor has understood the client, and

acts as a validator of a client's experience (Ishiyama, 1989; Westwood & Ishiyama, 1990).

Because communicators use symbols that are culturally defined, communication styles are affected by culture (Hall, 1976). A word or a gesture can possess different meanings depending upon the social-cultural shaping that has occurred (Westwood & Ishiyama, 1990). Ivey (1981, 1986) points out that communication styles manifested in counseling can either enhance or hinder the effectiveness of intercultural counseling. When the communication style of the counselor does not meet the expectations of the culturally different client, difficulties can occur, including premature termination of counseling after a failed effort at establishing rapport.

Several taxonomies comparing (direct and indirect counselor communication) have been developed (e.g. Hill, 1978; Zimmer & Pepyne, 1971). A "direct" communication style calls for the counselor to collect information, define and analyze a problem, present opinions and information, and provide specific directions to the client. "The direct approach is based on an assumption that the counselor is more capable than the client in analyzing and solving a particular problem" (Downs, Smeyak, & Martin, 1980, p. 194). However, when a counselor uses an "indirect" communication style however, the counselor performs more of a facilitating role. Through the use of an indirect communication style,

the counselor helps the client probe his or her own problems, and allows the client to take the lead in seeking solutions to problems (Downs, Smeyak, & Martin, 1980).

A study conducted by Peoples and Dell (1975) indicated that both African-American and White/Caucasian American subjects preferred a direct over an indirect communication style from a counselor. Use of a direct communication style increased clients' perceptions of counselor competence and increased clients' willingness to continue to consult the observed counselor more so than an indirect communication style (Peoples & Dell, 1975).

Several studies indicate that Hispanic-American populations may respond better to a direct than to an indirect communication style in counseling (Ruiz, Padilla, & Alvarez, 1978; Rivera-Ramos, 1984; Ruiz & Ruiz, 1983; Velez-Diaz & Martinez-Monfort, 1975). Nonetheless, Borrego, Chavez, and Titley's (1982), study comparing Mexican Americans and White/Caucasian Americans, found no differences in preferred communication style for a counselor. Although research lends limited support to the use of direct communication style in counseling of minority clients in the United States, a number of studies caution that the use of only one communication style may be counterproductive, and there is a need to be flexible (Banks, 1980; Calia, 1966, Sue, 1973; Sue & Sue, 1972; Williams & Kirkland, 1971).

Counselors' communication styles often coincide with a particular school of counseling. The direct communication style often is associated with behavioral counseling, whereas indirect communication style often is associated with existential-humanistic counseling (Corey, 1991). Most interracial studies comparing existential-humanistic counseling and behavioral counseling have contrasted the responses of White/Caucasian and African-American clients. Kincaid (1969) reported that African-Americans are more responsive to the direct techniques associated with behavioral counseling than to the indirect techniques associated with existential-humanistic counseling. Gibbs (1973) suggested the use of behavioral therapies in response to African-American hostility and mistrust. Harper and Stone (1974) recommended that counseling techniques that are supportive, directive, and information-giving be used with African-American clients. Others who advocate direct therapies for African-American clients include Gibbs (1973), Tucker (1973), and Turner and Jones (1982). As well, Atkinson, Maruyama, and Matsui (1978) found preferences for the direct approach from Asian-American clients. Likewise, Dauphinais, Dauphinais, and Rowe (1981) found that counselors committed to using existential-humanistic counseling, thus likely using an indirect style, were ineffective with Native American children. In many cases a direct was preferred over an indirect communication style.

Because different problems may require different counseling approaches, the championing of one approach over another for a certain minority group has met criticism (Egan, 1986; Ibrahim, 1985; Ivey, Ivey, & Simek-Downing, 1987; Pedersen, 1985). Henkin (1985) asserts that counseling that values individuality and self-determination, as do many of the traditional Western counseling schools, may not be effective for those from collectivistic cultures, such as Japan and China, that place value on social groups. Factors such as socio-economic status and educational level among members within a minority group influence an individual's preference of counseling technique (Pedersen, Draguns, Lonner, & Trimble, 1989). Smith (1977) warned that use of only one counseling technique for a specific minority group can lead to stereotyping. The stereotypic treatment of ethnic minority clients violates a major premise in counseling--to see clients as individuals first, and members of a group second (Smith, 1977; 1984).

General Hypotheses

Research concerning clients' predisposition toward counseling is scarce. Predisposition toward counseling also may be affected by the perceived counselor's cultural expertise and perceived similarity between client and counselor. Client predisposition toward counseling also may affect counseling outcomes: counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and the likelihood

of returning for additional sessions. Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad and counselor communication style may interact to influence counseling outcomes. Thus, four general hypotheses about relationships among the independent variables as they influence counseling investment outcomes were posed for this investigation:

- H1: Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing counseling effectiveness.
- H2: Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing client satisfaction.
- H3: Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing communication satisfaction.
- H4: Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing likelihood of return to counseling.

Each of the four outcomes are considered potential gifts resulting from counselor-client interactions. Previous literature does give some indication that an increase or decrease in one of these outcomes is likely to result in an increase or decrease in the same direction for other outcomes (Haase & Miller, 1968; Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). Therefore, the following six hypotheses

predict specific relationships among the counseling outcomes:

- H5: Counseling effectiveness is positively correlated with client satisfaction.
- H6: Counseling effectiveness is positively correlated with communication satisfaction.
- H7: Counseling effectiveness is positively correlated with likelihood of return to counseling.
- H8: Client satisfaction is positively correlated with communication satisfaction.
- H9: Client satisfaction is positively correlated with likelihood of return to counseling.
- H10: Communication satisfaction is positively correlated with likelihood of return to counseling.

The next section of this chapter focuses on hypotheses that have been generated based on the assumptions that clients can use either uncertainty reduction or power to assess rewards and costs in initial intercultural counseling interactions.

Hypotheses Based on Social Exchange Theory

Clients enter into initial counseling interactions looking for gifts from counseling, and such gifts are determined by clients' reward-cost assessments. Uncertainty reduction has been presented as a means through which

clients assess benefits and costs in their social exchanges with counselors. Another way that clients assess rewards and costs is through power. Both methods of reward-cost assessment are compared in this study, in an effort to explain a client's reward-cost assessment in exchanges of intercultural counseling.

Both models begin with the premise that communication is a transactional symbolic activity (Gudykunst & Kim, 1984). Both models operate under the theoretical perspective of social exchange. In each model a high predisposition toward counseling is considered a benefit, and is indicated with a plus sign, while a low predisposition toward counseling is considered a cost, and is indicated with a minus sign. Also, for both models when the same cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad is treated as a benefit, and is indicated with a plus sign, while different cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad is treated as a cost, and is indicated with a minus sign.

For both exchange models of uncertainty reduction and power a total of eight different combinations of the three factors are possible. Each combination of factors produces a predicted counseling investment outcome level. Benefits and costs are totaled across for each of the eight combination of factors with the possible number of benefits ranging from 0 to 3. The number of benefits that each

combination of factors possesses is reflected in the particular counseling investment outcome level. Therefore, according to the uncertainty reduction exchange model, the ascending order of benefits corresponds with the descending order of counseling investment outcome levels.

The models differ only in the way costs and benefits of direct/indirect counselor communication styles are operationalized. The primary reason for this difference comes from the equivocal nature of previous research regarding which communication style is more beneficial for clients in initial interactions.

In the uncertainty reduction model when a counselor uses a direct communication style, the client may see it as beneficial when uncertainty is reduced, or costly when the client gives up control of the direction of the counseling interaction. Likewise, when a counselor uses an indirect communication style, the client may see it as a benefit because the client feels empowered and is given control of the direction of the counseling. However, an indirect communication style may produce costs when the client's main objective is to reduce uncertainty. Table 1 summarizes the uncertainty reduction model.

Table 1

A Model to Predict Counseling Investment Outcomes
for Counselor-Client Social Exchange Using an
Uncertainty Reduction Theoretical Framework
for Assessing Rewards and Costs

		<u>Factor 1</u> Value of Client's Predisposition Toward Counseling	<u>Factor 2</u> Value of Counselor Communication Style	<u>Factor 3</u> Value of Cultural Composition of Dyad	<u>Predicted Counseling Investment Outcome Level</u>
Counseling Exchange					
1	HP-DS-SC	+	+	+	I
2	HP-DS-DC	+	+	-	II
3	HP-IS-SC	+	-	+	II
4	HP-IS-DC	+	-	-	III
5	LP-DS-SC	-	+	+	II
6	LP-DS-DC	-	+	-	III
7	LP-IS-SC	-	-	+	III
8	LP-IS-DC	-	-	-	IV

KEY:

HP = (Client's) High Predisposition toward counseling

LP = (Client's) Low Predisposition toward counseling

D = (Counselor's) Direct communication Style

IS = (Counselor's) Indirect communication Style

SC = (Dyadic Composition) Same Culture

DC = (Dyadic Composition) Different Culture

+ = Reward

- = Cost

Uncertainty reduction emphasizes that uncertainty is reduced when counselors use a direct communication style. Conversely, when an indirect communication style is used, uncertainty is likely to increase. The following four hypotheses that predict counseling investment outcomes are based on the uncertainty reduction theoretical framework for assessing counselor communication style:

- H11: No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level II.
- H12: No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level III.
- H13: Differences exist among the four counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.
- H14: Counseling investment outcomes are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.

While clients may use uncertainty reduction to assess rewards and costs from counselors communication styles, they may determine reward-cost ratios differently; one way is through the use of interpersonal power. The theoretical perspective of power implies that when a client assumes control of the direction of counseling, the result is a

benefit. The gift of power that gives the client control to make his or her own decisions is what clients value in counseling interactions.

Where the power model differs from the uncertainty reduction model is on the third factor of counselor communication style. Corresponding with the theoretical rationale of power, a client who uses power to weigh rewards and costs from exchanges with counselor, may see it as beneficial when a counselor uses an indirect communication style. The indirect communication style would allow the client to make his or her own decisions, and to feel in control. Therefore the counselor's indirect communication style would be assumed by the client to more likely to produce a reward, and is consequently indicated with a plus sign. Consequently, a direct counselor communication carries less value potential, is considered to be more of a cost to the client, and because of this it is signified with a minus sign. Table 2 summarizes the power model.

Table 2

A Model to Predict Counseling Investment Outcomes
for Counselor-Client Social Exchange Using a
Power Theoretical Framework for Assessing Rewards and Costs

		<u>Factor 1</u>	<u>Factor 2</u>	<u>Factor 3</u>	
		Value of Client's Predisposition Toward Counseling	Value of Counselor Communication Style	Value of Cultural Composition of Dyad	Predicted Counseling Investment Outcome Level
Counseling Exchange					
1	HP-DS-SC	+	-	+	II
2	HP-DS-DC	+	-	-	III
3	HP-IS-SC	+	+	+	I
4	HP-IS-DC	+	+	-	II
5	LP-DS-SC	-	-	+	III
6	LP-DS-DC	-	-	-	IV
7	LP-IS-SC	-	+	+	II
8	LP-IS-DC	-	+	-	III

KEY:

HP = (Client's) High Predisposition toward counseling

LP = (Client's) Low Predisposition toward counseling

D = (Counselor's) Direct communication Style

IS = (Counselor's) Indirect communication Style

SC = (Dyadic composition) Same Culture

DC = (Dyadic composition) Different Culture

+ = Reward

- = Cost

The theoretical perspective of power stresses that when counselors use an indirect communication style, the client feels in control; when a direct communication style is used, the client does not feel in control. Using the power exchange model, four specific hypotheses predicted counseling investment outcomes:

- H15: No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level II.
- H16: No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level III.
- H17: Differences exist among the four counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.
- H18: Counseling investment outcomes are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.

In summary, this chapter has provided a review of the relevant literature pertaining to the study. Hypotheses have been presented for interactions of variables related to counseling outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. Hypotheses were proposed to explain the relationships among the counseling outcomes of

counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.

The general research protocol and the statistical procedures used to analyze each of the 18 hypotheses are provided in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

The present study was designed to investigate the possible interaction of predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style in influencing outcomes of initial counseling. Specifically, the study examined predicted effects of counselor communication style in assessing which of two proposed social exchange models (uncertainty reduction or power) might explain inter-relationships among counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.

Research Design

A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design consisted of (1) two levels of predisposition toward counseling (high and low), (2) two types of cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad (same culture or different culture), and (3) two separate communication styles (direct and indirect).

Four scenario-scripts were developed to manipulate four experimental conditions: (1) same culture counselor-client dyad/direct counselor communication style, or (2) same culture counselor-client dyad/indirect communication style,

or (3) different culture counselor-client dyad/direct communication style, or (4) different culture counselor-client dyad culture/indirect communication style. (See Appendix A for scenario-scripts for the four possible conditions.) Random assignment of these scenario-scripts helped insure equivalence of numbers of subjects among treatment conditions.

Internal validity criteria were met by using the research design established by Campbell and Stanley (1963). The experimental research design in this study attempted to control against extraneous variables. Since subjects were not pretested, history, testing, maturation, and mortality could not confound the experimental treatment effects.

This study was a one-shot design; participants were studied in detail only once (Campbell, 1957). Selection of participants was not based on extreme scores on a pretest measurement, therefore, statistical regression to the sample mean should not influence the results. History and maturation were further controlled by presenting instructions, stimuli, and measuring instruments in written form to all respondents. All participants were from an intact class and treatments were randomized. Therefore, outcomes from this experiment may be ascribed to the experimental treatments alone.

Operational Definitions

Independent Variables

Predisposition toward counseling. A respondent's predisposition toward counseling was operationalized by scores on the Predisposition Toward Counseling (PTC) instrument developed by Snyder, Hill, and Derksen (1972). The PTC is unique because it assesses responses from prospective clients directly and is a means of quantitatively measuring predisposition toward counseling (Snyder, Hill, & Derksen; Johnson, 1977). The PTC has previously exhibited satisfactory internal consistency with reported reliabilities over .80, and a homogeneity ratio of approximately .33 (Snyder, Hill, & Derksen, 1972).

The Predisposition Toward Counseling instrument used in this study consisted of eleven statements rated on a 9 point scale. (See Appendix B.) Thus, the possible range of scores for the PTC was from 11 to 99. Low scores on the PTC indicate a respondent's low predisposition toward counseling, while high scores indicate a respondent's high predisposition.

Individuals with a high predisposition toward counseling tend to report generally positive feelings about the counseling process, whereas individuals with a low predisposition look upon the counseling process hesitantly, or with a negative view (Snyder, Hill, & Derksen, 1972). A

median split was used to define high and low predisposition toward counseling.

Cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad.

Respondents were instructed to assume that the counselor was either from the same culture as the respondent, or to assume that the counselor was from a culture chosen as "most different" from the respondent's. Same cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad was operationalized through a statement in the scenario-script which read: "The counselor is from the **SAME** cultural group as yours." In the case of interactions with a counselor from a different culture, each respondent selected a specific culture from a list of choices (African-American, White/Caucasian, Hispanic, Asian-American, Other) that he or she considered to be most different from his/her own. Different cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad was operationalized by having the respondent "put a check in front of the cultural group you consider **MOST DIFFERENT** from you." The respondent then was instructed to assume that the counselor was from the cultural group that he/she had selected most different from him/her.

Counselor communication style. Two scenario-scripts, one employing direct counselor communication responses and the other using indirect counselor communication responses, were developed and pretested for use in the present study. (See Appendix A.) The content of these scenario-scripts is

similar to the content used in an earlier study by Atkinson, Maruyama, and Matsui (1978).

Counselor communication style was operationalized as either direct or indirect through the use of the counselor verbal response category system developed by Hill (1978) was used in formulating the scenarios. This category response system differentiates between a counselor's use of direct communication and indirect communication verbal response patterns. Direct patterns emphasize open questioning, direct guidance, approval/reassurance, moderate use of reflection, but shun restatement and paraphrasing. Indirect patterns accentuate restatements, paraphrasing; reflection consists of a moderate use of open questioning, and a moderate use of approval/reassurance, and shuns direct guidance (Hill, 1978). The counselor verbal response category system has mutually exclusive categories with both face and content validity that differentiate counselors' direct or indirect verbal communication responses to a client (Hill, 1978).

The scenario-scripts in this study consisted of a few lines of dialogue exchanged between the counselor and a client (respondent).

Schlenker and Leary (1982) defend the use of such brief scenarios:

The brief scenarios provided a means of focusing subjects on the information.... The advantage is the increased experimental control and salience of the key information,

providing internally valid tests. The disadvantage is that such control is usually purchased with a sacrifice in vividness of the situation and possible loss of validity....Nonetheless,... results can be generalized beyond the present situation, (p. 103)

Counselor communication style was experimentally manipulated between direct and indirect communication in the brief scenario-scripts.

Dependent Variables

There are four dependent variables in this study. The Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI) was used to operationalize two of the dependent variables in this study, counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction. (See Appendix C.) The original CEI consisted of three Likert-type scales that measured (1) counseling climate, (2) counselor comfort, and (3) client satisfaction (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). Later, counseling climate and counselor comfort were collapsed into one scale by Haase and Miller (1968) and labeled as counseling climate. Because statements indicating counseling climate were found to be isomorphic with counseling effectiveness (Haase & Miller, 1968), the subscale counselor climate was relabeled counseling effectiveness for the present study.

Previous test-retest reliabilities for each of the items on the CEI demonstrated that all items were statistically reliable at or beyond a preset .05 alpha level. Prior reliabilities of the CEI in populations with

high school subjects were .78 for counseling climate, .74 for client satisfaction, and .83 for the total score. In addition, using counselor candidates' practicum grades as a provisional criterion, congruent or discriminative validity was significant at or beyond the .05 level for each of the scales of the CEI (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965).

Counseling effectiveness. Counseling effectiveness was operationalized as a respondent's score on the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI) (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). The fourteen items designated to measure counseling effectiveness correspond with item numbers 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19 on the CEI in Appendix C (Haase & Miller, 1968). Statements were rated on a 9-point scale. Responses ranged from "1" ("Strongly Agree") to "9" ("Strongly Disagree"). The possible range of scores for Counseling Effectiveness was from 14 to 126. The lower the score the more effective the respondent assessed that counseling.

Client satisfaction. Client satisfaction was operationalized by a respondent's scores on the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI) (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). The five items used to test client satisfaction correspond with item numbers were items 2, 6, 9, 12, and 14 on the CEI in Appendix C (Haase & Miller, 1968). Verb tenses were changed from past to present tense for this study. For example, "I felt at ease with the counselor,"

was changed to "I would feel at ease with the counselor." In addition, identification of the counselor as a male on the original scale was changed to reflect a gender-free identification on all items.

Statements regarding client satisfaction rated on a 9-point scale. Responses ranged from "1" ("Strongly Agree") to "9" ("Strongly Disagree"). The possible range of scores for client satisfaction was from 5 to 45. The lower the score the higher the client satisfaction.

Communication satisfaction. The Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory (COMSAT) (Hecht, 1978) operationalized communication satisfaction. (See Appendix D.) According to Hecht (1978), "The [communication satisfaction] inventory should prove valuable in assessing the causes of communication satisfaction by providing an outcome measure of process effects" (p. 262). The Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory has exhibited both high reliability and validity when used to measure communication satisfaction with friends, acquaintances, or strangers in actual, recalled, or role play conversations. Previous reliabilities for the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory were .97 in the actual treatment, .90 in the recalled treatment, .93 among friends, .97 among acquaintances, and .96 among strangers (Hecht, 1978).

Responses to the COMSAT in this study were on a 9-point scale. The possible range of scores for respondents completing all questions on the COMSAT was from 15 to 135. The lower the score the more the respondent reports communication satisfaction.

Likelihood of return to counseling. A single item was included at the end of the CEI asking for responses to the statement "I would return to this counselor for a second counseling session." This statement operationalized likelihood of return to counseling; responses were made on a 9-point scale from "1" ("very strongly agree") and "9" as ("very strongly disagree.") Thus, the possible range of scores was from "1" to "9".

A Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted prior to the present study in order to evaluate the testing procedure, to produce information on the reliability for the measures, and to obtain participants' feedback on both the counselor-client scenarios and the test instruments.

A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design used in the pilot study included (1) two levels of predisposition toward counseling (high/low), (2) two levels of client cultural identification (majority culture/minority culture), and (3) two levels of counselor communication style (direct/indirect). Scenarios-scripts indicating that the counselor was either from the same culture or from a different culture as the client were

presented randomly to respondents. All instruments used in the pilot study were administered in one setting during a regularly scheduled class.

Respondents who indicated they were White/Caucasian were classified as being from the majority culture. Respondents who specified they were African-American, Asian-American, or Hispanic were classified as members of a minority culture. Client interactions with either same culture or different culture counselors were randomized across respondents. Counselors in the scenarios-scripts used either direct or indirect communication styles (Atkinson, Maruyama, & Matsui, 1978).

A total of 23 undergraduate students enrolled in a public speaking course at a large southeastern university participated voluntarily in the pilot study. Of the participants, 52.2% (12) were females and 47.8% (11) were males; 13% (3) were African-Americans, 13% (3) were Hispanics, and 69.6% (16) were White/Caucasians. Ages ranged from 19 to 31 years, with the mean age being 21. First year students accounted for 4.3% (1), 26.1% (6) were sophomores, 39.1% (9) were juniors, and 30.4% (7) were seniors.

The following procedures were used in the pilot study: Respondents (1) initially completed the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale (PTC); (2) read randomly assigned scenarios-scripts in which they were asked to assume the

role of the client; and (3) completed the Counselor Evaluation Inventory CEI), and basic demographic information.

The scenarios-scripts dealt with the client's adjustment problems to his/her university. One communication style condition consisted of direct counselor responses, the other consisted of indirect counselor responses. Along with scenarios-scripts respondents were asked to indicate his/her cultural identification. Scenarios-scripts also informed respondents that the counselor was either from the same culture or a different culture as the respondent. After reading the scenarios-script, respondents completed the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI) as well as basic demographic information.

General analyses included frequency distributions and reliability tests for the PTC, CEI, and Counseling Effectiveness and Client Satisfaction subscales of the CEI. Alpha was preset at .05 for all tests. All statistics were conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences X (Nie, 1988).

Results from the pilot study revealed that the questionnaires and test stimuli (Counselor-Client scenarios-scripts) were understood by all respondents. The pilot study also provided information about the reliabilities of the scales used in this study. The PTC instrument had a reliability of .86. The reliability of the overall CEI was

.92. Reliabilities for the subscales of the CEI, counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction, were .91 and .88, respectively.

A manipulation check was conducted as part of the pilot study to determine if direct and indirect counselor communication styles were perceived significantly different in the scenario-scripts. A single statement, "The counselor was direct in his/her communication" measured this perception. A 7-point Likert scale where responses ranged from "1" ("Strongly Agree") to "7" ("Strongly Disagree") was used.

Results of the manipulation check showed that the two styles were perceived significantly different with regard to directiveness ($t = 2.18$; $df = 21$, $p < .04$). The direct style ($M = 3.55$) was perceived as significantly more directive than the indirect style ($M = 5.17$).

Several adjustments were made on the basis of pilot study results. First, the 7-point Likert scaling for all instruments used in the pilot study was replaced with a 9-point scale anchored only at the extreme ends (i.e., "Very Strongly Agree" and "Very Strongly Disagree"). This change in minimizing the anchoring enhances the ability to detect differences in the measurement of different aspects of attitudes (Nunnally, 1978). Thus, the 9-point scale enhanced reliability in the primary investigation.

The pilot study indicated that the original scenarios-scripts presented weaknesses, and in some cases confusion, in the operationalization of the client's cultural representation. Identifying all White/Caucasian respondents as representing the majority culture as well as grouping all other respondents as representing the minority culture was therefore dropped due to confusion among respondents in distinguishing majority and minority culture. Thus, a second set of adjustments was made. In cases of an interaction with a counselor from the respondent's same culture, culture of the counselor was similar to the culture each respondent marked to identify him/herself; In cases of an interaction with a counselor from a different culture, each respondent selected from a list of choices (African-American, White/Caucasian, Hispanic) the culture of the counselor which he or she considered most different from him/herself.

In summary, the pilot study tested the feasibility of the general design of the study, assessed reliability of the instruments, and provided a manipulation check for the communication style conditions varied within the scenarios-scripts used in the present study.

Subjects

Respondents were 239 undergraduate students enrolled in a basic communication studies course at a large southeastern university in the United States. The experiment was

conducted during a regularly scheduled class time; respondents received extra credit for their participation.

Procedures

Each respondent received a packet that contained (1) The Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale, (2) A scenario-script depicting a counselor-client interaction, (3) The Counselor Evaluation Inventory, (4) A statement on the likelihood of return to counseling, (5) The Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory, and (6) Basic demographic questions.

Respondents were instructed to first complete the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale before reading the scenario-script. Respondents were assigned randomly to read one of the two scenario-scripts, and were instructed to assume the role of the client while reading. The topic of all of the scenario-scripts concerned a client's difficulty to adjust to a new university. The scenarios-scripts presented discussion between the client and counselor about those adjustment problems. Counselor responses in the direct communication style condition were included as offering interpretations and giving prescriptive suggestions. Counselor responses in the indirect communication style condition were characterized by restatement and reflection of the client's thoughts.

Immediately after reading the scenarios-scripts, respondents were asked to complete the Counselor Evaluation

Inventory and the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory. Subjects were then asked to respond to the single statement concerning the likelihood of returning to a subsequent counseling interaction with the counselor specifically depicted in the scenario-script.

A manipulation check to determine the difference between direct and indirect counselor communication style was included as part of the Counselor Evaluation Inventory. The manipulation check consisted of the statement: "The counselor was direct in his/her communication." Respondents answered on a 9-point scale from "1" ("Strongly Agree") to "9" ("Strongly Disagree").

Respondents then completed basic demographic information (sex, age, racial identification, and year in school), and were asked to reply to the question: "Have you ever been to a counselor/psychotherapist for a personal problem?" (See Appendix E for demographic information.) Finally, respondents were debriefed on the study and were thanked for their participation.

Analyses of Results

All data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences X (Nie, 1988). Alpha was preset at .05 for all statistical tests. General analyses included frequency distributions, descriptive statistics, the manipulation check, and reliability analyses for the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale, the Counselor

Evaluation Inventory and the CEI's subscales of Counseling Effectiveness and Client Satisfaction, and the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory.

Hypotheses Testing

Hypotheses one through four were tested via a series of three-factor ANOVAs for three-way interaction effects (predisposition toward counseling, by cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, by counselor communication style) in affecting evaluations of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. The Bartlett-Box F test was used to test the assumption of homogeneity of variance prior to completing each ANOVA (Box, 1953).

Pearson Product-Moment correlations were used to test hypotheses five through ten hypotheses that predicted positive addressed correlations among the four dependent variables (counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling).

Hypotheses 11 through 13, and hypotheses 15 through 17, were tested via a series of one-way ANOVAs. Hypothesis 14 and hypothesis 18 were tested via Pearson Product-Moment correlations.

Post Hoc Interpretations

Where F tests were statistically significant, main effects were interpreted on a post hoc basis. If

interaction effects were found a LSD (least-significant difference test) was conducted. The results of all statistical analyses are reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

To investigate how clients' predisposition toward counseling may interact with counselors' communication styles and cultural composition of the dyad in influencing the counseling outcomes of initial intercultural interactions, data were analyzed for 233 cases. A 2 x 2 x 2 factorial design was used to collect data in order to test 18 hypotheses. Results include sample characteristics, results of a manipulation check, reliability analyses, descriptive statistics, statistical analyses to test hypotheses, and post hoc analyses.

Sample Characteristics

Six of the 239 respondents, were eliminated due to flagrant incompletions of instruments. Of the remaining 233 participants, 54.5% (127) were female and 45.5% (106) were male. According to self-reports, there were 11.2% (26) African-Americans, 3.9% (9) Asians, 70.8% (165) White/Caucasians, and 13.3% (31) Hispanics; and additional .09% (2) who reported their ethnicity as "Other." Ages ranged from 18 to 25 years with the mean age being 19 years. There were 51.9% (121) first year students, 26.2% (61) sophomores, 12.4% (29) juniors, and 9.4% (22) seniors. In response to the question "Have you ever been to a

counselor/psychotherapist for a personal problem?" 29.6% (69) said "Yes"; 70% (163) said "No". One respondent did not answer this question.

Manipulation Check

In order to determine if the two counselor communication styles in the study were perceived differently, respondents were asked to respond to the following statement: "The counselor was direct in his/her communication with the client" on a nine-point scale from 1 "Strongly Agree" to 9 "Strongly Disagree". Results of a t-test determined that the direct and indirect counselor communication styles were perceived differently ($t = -6.43$, $df = 230$, $p < .001$). Specifically, direct communication style ($M = 3.72$) was perceived as more direct than the indirect counselor communication style ($M = 5.61$).

Reliability Analyses

The final Cronbach's coefficient alphas were .81 for the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale (PTC), .93 for the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI), and .93 for the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory (COMSAT). Coefficient alpha for the CEI subscale labeled Counseling Effectiveness was .91; coefficient alpha for the CEI subscale labeled Client Satisfaction was .88. Therefore, all scales in their original forms were sufficiently reliable for hypothesis testing purposes (Nunally, 1978).

Descriptive Statistics

Dependent variables included counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. In this study, for dependent measures low means indicate a more favorable response than high means. (See Appendix F for all statistical tables presented in this study, Tables 3 through 34.) Tables 3 through 7 in Appendix F summarize a breakdown of the descriptive statistics for each dependent variable as well as the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (which consists of the counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction subscales).

The mean score on the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale was 45.80 with a standard deviation of 13.13 for 230 respondents. A low score indicated that the respondent had a high predisposition toward counseling; a high score indicated the respondent had a low predisposition toward counseling. The median was 47; a median split was performed to operationally define high and low predisposition toward counseling. Respondents who scored less than 47 on the PTC were categorized as having a high predisposition toward counseling; respondents who scored greater than 47 on the PTC were categorized as having a low predisposition toward counseling. Eight respondents received a median score of 47; these respondents were categorized as having a high or

low predisposition toward counseling. Figure 1 summarizes the distribution of scores on the PTC.

Figure 1

Histogram of Respondents' Scores on the PTC

(One asterisk equals approximately .60 occurrences.)

Count Midpoint

2	12.67	***
2	16.00	***
2	19.33	***
6	22.67	*****
10	26.00	*****
12	29.33	*****
21	32.67	*****
3	36.00	*****
15	39.33	*****
22	42.67	*****
24	46.00	*****
19	49.33	*****
28	52.67	*****
19	56.00	*****
24	59.33	*****
10	62.67	*****
2	66.00	***
2	69.33	***
4	72.67	*****
2	76.00	***
1	79.33	**

Frequency	0	6	12	18	24	30
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Hypotheses

General Hypotheses About Relationships Among the Independent Variables As They Influence Counseling Investment Outcomes

Hypotheses One through Four were analyzed via a series of three-factor ANOVAs. The three factors were predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style. Because only interaction effects were predicted significant main effects are discussed later as part of the post hoc analyses.

Hypothesis One predicted: "Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing counseling effectiveness." The three-way interaction effect was not statistically significant; thus, Hypothesis One was not supported. However, the ANOVA revealed: (1) a main effect for predisposition toward counseling; (2) a main effect for cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad; and (3) a main effect for counselor communication style. Table 8 in Appendix F reports the results of the analysis of variance for counseling effectiveness.

Hypothesis Two predicted: "Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing client satisfaction." The predicted three-way

interaction effect was not statistically significant; thus, Hypothesis Two was not supported. However, results revealed a main effect for predisposition toward counseling and a main effect for counselor communication style. Table 9 in Appendix F reports the analysis of variance for client satisfaction.

Hypothesis Three predicted: "Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing communication satisfaction." The predicted three-way interaction effect was not statistically significant, thus, Hypothesis Three was not supported. However, the ANOVA revealed a main effect for predisposition toward counseling and a main effect for counselor communication style. Table 10 in Appendix F details the results of the analysis of variance for communication satisfaction.

Hypothesis Four predicted: "Predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style interact in influencing likelihood of return to counseling." The three-way interaction effect approached, but did not achieve, statistical significance; thus, Hypothesis Four was not supported. However, results revealed a main effect for predisposition toward counseling and a main effect for

counselor communication style. Table 11 in Appendix F details the results of the analysis of variance.

General Hypotheses About Relationships Among the Dependent Variables

Hypotheses 5 through 10 which predicted positive relationships among the four dependent variables (counseling effectiveness (CE), client satisfaction (CLS), communication satisfaction (CS), and likelihood of return to counseling (RET) were all statistically supported and exceed an alpha level of .05. Table 12 in Appendix F summarizes the results of the Pearson-Product moment correlations.

Hypotheses Based on the Social Exchange Model Using an Uncertainty Reduction Theoretical Framework for Assessing Counselor Communication Style

Hypotheses 11 through 14 made predictions based on an uncertainty reduction theoretical framework for assessing the cost-reward value of counselor communication style. Table 13 in Appendix F summarizes descriptive statistics for each of four dependent variables, counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling.

Hypothesis 11 predicted: "No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level II." Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed significant

differences among the subgroups with counseling investment outcomes Level II for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling; thus, Hypothesis 11 was not supported. Table 14 in Appendix F presents results of the analyses of variance.

Followup tests specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were used to compare groups in Level II. All comparison of groups differed from each other at a statistically significant level except for Groups 3 and 5 on counseling effectiveness and likelihood of return to counseling. Table 15 in Appendix F details the results of the followup tests.

Hypothesis 12 predicted: "No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level III." Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level III for all four dependent variables. Thus, Hypothesis 12 did not receive statistical support. Table 16 in Appendix F summarizes the results of the analyses of variance.

Followup tests specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were used to compare groups in Level III. Groups not significantly different from another were: (1)

groups 4 and 6 on counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling; (2) groups 4 and 7 on communication satisfaction and likelihood of return to counseling. All other comparison of groups revealed statistically significant differences. Table 17 in Appendix F details the results of the followup tests.

Hypothesis 13 predicted: "Differences exist among the four counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling." A series of oneway ANOVAs for the counseling investment outcome levels revealed statistically significant differences existed among the groups for all four dependent variables. Thus, Hypothesis 13 was supported. Table 18 in Appendix F summarizes the results of the analyses of variance. The Bartlett-Box F test was computed to test the assumptions of homogeneity of variance.

A priori tests specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were computed to identify the specific differences among the counseling investment outcome levels. The results revealed that not all counseling investment outcome levels differed from each other for the four dependent variables. For counseling effectiveness, Levels I and II, and III differed from one another, but Levels III and IV did not. For client satisfaction, all levels except

III and IV, were significantly different from one another. For both communication satisfaction and likelihood of return to counseling, all levels except I and II, and III and IV differed from one another. Thus, Hypothesis 13 received substantial statistical support. Tables 19 through 22 in Appendix F detail the results of the a priori contrasts among the four counseling investment levels for the four dependent variables.

Hypothesis 14 predicted: "Counseling investment outcomes are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling." Pearson Product-Moment correlations revealed that the correlations between investment levels and outcome were positive and statistically significant ($p < .001$) for all four dependent variables. Thus, Hypothesis 14 was supported. Table 23 in Appendix F summarizes the results.

Hypotheses Based on a Power Theoretical Framework for Assessing Counselor Communication Style

Hypotheses 15 through 18 made predictions based on a power theoretical framework for assessing counselor communication style. On the following page, Table 24 in Appendix F summarizes the descriptive statistics for each of the four dependent variables, counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and

likelihood of return to counseling, as well as the overall Counselor Evaluation Inventory regarding the four counseling investment levels.

Hypothesis 15 predicted: "No differences exist in counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level II." Results of a one-way ANOVA revealed that significant differences existed among the three subgroups with counseling investment outcomes Level II for all four dependent variables. Therefore, Hypothesis 15 was not supported. Table 25 in Appendix F summarizes the analyses of variance.

Followup tests specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were used to compare groups in Level II. All paired comparisons of groups differed statistically except Groups 1 and 4 on counseling effectiveness and Groups 4 and 7 on communication satisfaction and the likelihood of return to counseling. Table 26 in Appendix F summarizes the results of the followup tests.

Hypothesis 16 predicted: "No differences exist in Level III for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling among the subgroups within counseling investment outcome Level III." Results of a series of one-way ANOVAs revealed that significant differences existed among the

subgroups for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. Thus, Hypothesis 16 failed to receive statistical support. Table 27 in Appendix F summarizes the analyses of variance.

Followup tests specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were used to identify specific differences among groups in Level III. All pairs of groups differed significantly for all dependent variables except Groups 5 and Group 8 on counseling effectiveness. On the following page, Table 28 in Appendix F summarizes the results of the followup tests.

Hypothesis 17 predicted: "Differences exist among the four counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling." A series of one-way ANOVAs were statistically significant differences among the counseling investment levels. Table 29 in Appendix F presents summarizes the analyses of variance.

A priori contrasts specifying the LSD (least significant difference) range were computed to identify specific differences among the four counseling investment outcomes levels. The results revealed that only Levels I and III differed on both client satisfaction and communication satisfaction. Only Levels I and III, and

Levels II and III, differed on likelihood of return to counseling. No other differences occurred; thus, Hypothesis 17 was not supported. Tables 30 through 33 in Appendix F summarize the results of the a priori contrasts for the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 18 predicted: "Counseling investment outcomes are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling." Pearson product-moment correlations revealed negative correlations between counseling investment level and client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. The correlation between counseling level and counseling effectiveness was positive, but not statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis 18 was not supported. Table 34 in Appendix F summarizes these results.

Post Hoc Interpretations

Post hoc interpretations of main effects were completed in order to identify the influences of predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style on counseling outcomes.

Results revealed that main effects for predisposition toward counseling ($F = 47.08$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$), and counselor communication style ($F = 22.31$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$) in

influencing counseling effectiveness. High predisposition toward counseling led to greater counseling effectiveness than low predisposition toward counseling. A direct communication style used by counselors led to greater counseling effectiveness than an indirect communication style. (See Tables 3 and 8.)

Main effects occurred for predisposition toward counseling ($F = 13.33$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$), and counselor communication style ($F = 46.55$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$) in influencing client satisfaction. High predisposition toward counseling led to greater client satisfaction than low predisposition toward counseling. A direct communication style used by counselors led to greater client satisfaction than an indirect communication style. (See Tables 4 and 9.)

Results revealed main effects for predisposition toward counseling ($F = 7.01$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$), and counselor communication style ($F = 42.86$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$) in influencing communication satisfaction. High predisposition toward counseling led to greater communication satisfaction than low predisposition toward counseling. A direct communication style used by counselors led to greater communication satisfaction than an indirect communication style. (See Tables 6 and 10.)

Results revealed main effects for predisposition toward counseling ($F = 5.09$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$), and counselor communication style ($F = 38.75$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$) in

influencing the likelihood of return to counseling. High predisposition toward counseling led to a statistically significantly higher likelihood of return to counseling. than a low predisposition toward counseling. A direct communication style used by counselors led to statistically significantly higher likelihood of return to counseling. than an indirect communication style. (See Tables 7 and 11.)

Summary of Results

Hypotheses one through four that predicted three-way interaction effects of predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style in influencing counseling investment outcomes were not supported.

However, post hoc interpretations of the revealed main effects for ANOVAS for predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style in influencing counselor outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication, and likelihood of return to counseling.

Hypotheses Five through Ten predicted positive correlations between counseling outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. Positive correlations among all pairs of the dependent variables were supported.

Hypotheses 11 through 14 made predictions based on an uncertainty reduction theoretical framework for assessing the influence of counselor communication style on counseling outcomes. Hypothesis 11 predicted no differences among the subgroups in counseling investment outcomes Level II and was not supported. Hypothesis 12 predicted no differences among the subgroups in counseling investment outcome Level III and was not supported. Hypothesis 13 predicted differences among the four counseling investment levels in influencing counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling, and was supported. Hypothesis 14, predicted counseling investment outcomes for (counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling) are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels, and was supported.

Hypotheses 15 through 18 made predictions based on a power theoretical framework for assessing the influence of counselor communication style on counseling outcomes. Hypothesis 15, predicted no differences among the subgroups in counseling investment Level II and was not supported. Hypothesis 16, predicted no differences among the subgroups in counseling investment Level III and was not supported. Hypothesis 17 predicted differences among the four counseling investment levels in influencing counseling

effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling, and did not receive statistical support. Hypothesis 18 predicted counseling investment outcomes (counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling) are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels and was not supported.

In summary, the predicted three-way interactions (predisposition toward counseling by cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad by counselor communication style) in influencing counseling outcomes were not supported. The dependent variables (counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling) were all significantly correlated with one another as predicted. Two of the hypotheses for the social exchange model based on uncertainty reduction were supported. None of the hypotheses for the social exchange model based on a power theoretical framework were supported.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

Overview

Changing population demographics increasingly are making the United States a multicultural nation with a wide variety of customs and values within its borders. Due to these changes, counselors cannot assume that clients come from a relatively homogenous background (Larsen & Downie, 1988). As a result of the increase in frequency of intercultural counseling interactions, the primary question addressed in this study was "How do a client's predisposition toward counseling, the cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and the counselor's communication style influence outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and the likelihood of return to counseling?" Specifically, this study tested social exchange theory by proposing three cost-reward factors (client predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style) that influence counseling outcomes. Two competing models (1) uncertainty reduction and (2) power to explain how clients assess rewards and costs from communication with counselors. This chapter presents an overview of the problem, methods

and results, and a discussion of conclusions from the study, as well as its limitations. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

Using Social Exchange Theory
to Predict Counseling Outcomes

Factors Influencing Counseling Outcomes

Predispositions can affect the overall success of counseling. Predispositions toward counseling influence an individual's motivation to seek counseling, and may affect the communication between counselor and client directly. This study investigated the effects of high and low predisposition toward counseling on counseling outcomes.

Extant literature suggests that cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad influences counseling outcomes. This study distinguished between "same culture," where counselor and client are from the same cultural background, and "different culture," where counselor and client are from a different cultural background. This study tested for differences in cultural composition of the counseling dyad in influencing counseling outcomes.

The differential effects of two counselor communication styles, direct and indirect, on counseling outcomes were investigated. The styles were based on a counselor verbal response category system developed by Hill (1978).

Counseling Outcomes

Outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling were assessed in this study. Counseling effectiveness refers to the overall usefulness of counseling to address problems. Client satisfaction is an individual's personal contentment about how counseling addresses his or her needs (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965). Another outcome assessed in this study was communication satisfaction. Communication satisfaction is defined as a vehicle for evaluating the results of communication encounters (Hecht, 1978). Because premature termination of counseling is a prominent issue in intercultural counseling today, the outcome of a client's likelihood of return to a second counseling interaction was also considered in this study.

Counseling as Social Exchange

Some counseling theorists suggest that clients seek a benefit or a "gift" from their interactions with counselors (Sue & Zane, 1987). In this view, successful counseling depends on what clients believe comprises a gift, and whether the client "receives" the gift in counseling, thus these gifts may affect counseling outcomes. Gifts are similar to the profits referred to in social exchange theory (Homans, 1961). Social exchange theory views human interaction in terms of an economic model where individuals

to exchange commodities that have reward and cost values. For an exchange to continue, rewards must outweigh costs, i.e., a relationship must be profitable" (Blau, 1964; Homans, 1950; 1961). Thus, the present study examined clients' assessments of rewards and costs in initial intercultural counseling interactions.

A primary objective of this study was to test social exchange theory as an explanation for the outcomes of counselor-client interactions. In social exchange theory, rewards and costs can be assessed in a number of ways. One of these ways is through uncertainty reduction. With uncertainty reduction, the primary concern is to increase predictability about the behavior of both one's self and others in an exchange (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). Another way that rewards and costs can be assessed in social exchange theory is through the construct of interpersonal power. The interpersonal power approach suggests that an individual feels empowered if he or she is in control (Rogers, 1961).

For both uncertainty reduction and power the value gained through rewards, or the value lost through costs depends on certain factors that make up the social exchange. One factor characteristic of a counseling social exchange is counselor communication style. Depending upon whether the counselor communication style is direct or indirect separate models of uncertainty reduction and power were

tested to understand how clients assess both costs and benefits in a counseling exchange. The uncertainty reduction model treated direct counselor communication style as a benefit; the power model treated indirect counselor communication style as a benefit. These models provided information about the ways that counselor communication style can influence what is or what is not seen as a gift for clients, and how this perception affected counseling outcomes.

Methods

This study investigated the possible three-way interaction effects of (predisposition toward counseling, by cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, by counselor communication style in influencing initial counseling outcomes. The study examined predicted effects of counselor communication style using two competing social exchange models (uncertainty reduction and power) in influencing counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and the likelihood of return to counseling.

Subjects completed a Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale. Each subject read one scenario-script reflecting of one of the following four possible treatment conditions: (1) same/culture/direct communication style, (2) same culture/indirect communication style, (3) different culture/direct communication style, and (4) different

culture/indirect communication style. Each subject was asked to assume the role of the client in reading the scenario-script. The scenarios-scripts consisted of a discussion between counselor and client on the topic of the client's difficulty to adjust to a new university. Subjects then evaluated the counseling interaction by responding to the Counselor Evaluation Inventory and the Interpersonal Communication Satisfaction Inventory. Each subject also indicated the likelihood he/she would return to a second counseling session with the counselor depicted in the scenario-script.

A manipulation check revealed that direct and indirect counselor communication styles, as manipulated in the study were perceived differently and in the direction of the intended manipulation of the treatments. Specifically, the perceived level of directness for the direct counselor communication style was greater than for the indirect counselor communication style.

Results

Hypotheses that predicted three-way interactions among the independent variables (predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style), as they influence counseling investment outcomes were not supported.

Hypotheses that predicted positive correlations between the pairs of dependent variables (counseling effectiveness,

client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling) were all supported statistically.

Two hypotheses, that predicted differences based on an uncertainty reduction theoretical framework for assessing rewards and costs of counselor communication style in a social exchange, received statistical support. These findings were among the most important ones of the study. The hypothesis that predicted differences among the four counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling was supported. The hypothesis that predicted counseling investment outcomes were linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment outcome levels for counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling, also was supported. The hypotheses predicting no differences among the subgroups in the two different counseling investment outcomes levels were not supported. Hypotheses that made predictions based on a power theoretical framework for assessing rewards and costs of counselor communication style in a social exchange were not supported. Thus, results provided stronger support for the uncertainty reduction model than for the power model.

Post hoc interpretations of main effects revealed that of predisposition toward counseling and counselor communication style influenced counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and the likelihood of return to counseling.

Results of this study suggest that the outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling are strongly influenced by both clients' predispositions toward counseling and counselors' communication style. However, the cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad did not produce any differences between same culture and different culture dyads for any of the counseling outcomes under investigation in this study.

Culture's Role in Initial Counseling Interactions

Cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad did not demonstrate any significant differences in evaluations for all counseling outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling. One explanation may be that the counseling interaction in this study consisted primarily of a task, and not a socially oriented problem. Cultural issues distinguishing same and different cultural dyads may play a larger role when the initial interaction involves a social rather than a task focus.

A second explanation for the lack of effects due to the

cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad is that in an initial counseling interaction, the task at hand was for a professional counselor to help a client with a problem. Issues surrounding the credibility of the counselor, such as trustworthiness, attractiveness, and skill may take precedence over obvious cultural differences for clients' evaluations in task situations (Phares, 1984; Sue & Zane, 1987).

Other factors such as age, gender, and assumed expertise may play a more significant role for counseling outcomes from initial interactions (Shon, 1980). Clients may assume that because the counselor has certain credentials, and is recognized as a professional who provides help to others, then the counselor already possesses the expertise help individuals from a variety of races and cultures.

The findings of this study did not contradict previous studies about clients perceptions of their counselors capabilities to help in initial intercultural counseling interactions. What becomes important, as Strong and Dixon (1971) explain is: "the client's belief that the counselor possesses information and means of interpreting information which allow the client to obtain valid conclusions about and to deal effectively with his/her problems" (Strong & Dixon, 1971, p. 562). In other investigations of intercultural counseling contexts, researchers found that racial dissimilarity between the counselor and the client was not a

formidable barrier (Atkinson, 1983; Cimboric, 1972; 1973; Coleman, 1993; Ewing, 1974; Furlong, Atkinson, & Casas, 1979; Griffith, 1977; Porche & Banikiotes, 1982).

The Role of Communication Style in Counseling Outcomes

Consistent with extant literature that clients from a variety of racial backgrounds prefer a direct over an indirect counselor communication style (Peoples & Dell, 1975; Atkinson, Maruyama, & Matsui, 1978; Dauphinais, Dauphinais, & Rowe, 1981; Ruiz & Ruiz, 1983), this study found that subjects generally preferred direct counselor communication style. One qualification to this finding is that a direct communication style may be more appropriate for initial interactions such as those investigated in the present study. However, clients in subsequent counseling interactions, may prefer a different communication style than preferred in initial sessions (Banks, 1980; Corey, 1991; Sue & Sue, 1972; Sue, 1973). In summary, one particular approach or communication style should not be championed at all times over other styles (Ibrahim, 1985; Pedersen, 1985).

Some interesting effects emerged for counselor communication style in influencing counseling outcomes. Figures 2 through 6 provide geometric representations of the mean scores for each of the four counseling outcomes of counseling effectiveness, client satisfaction, communication satisfaction, and likelihood of return to counseling, as

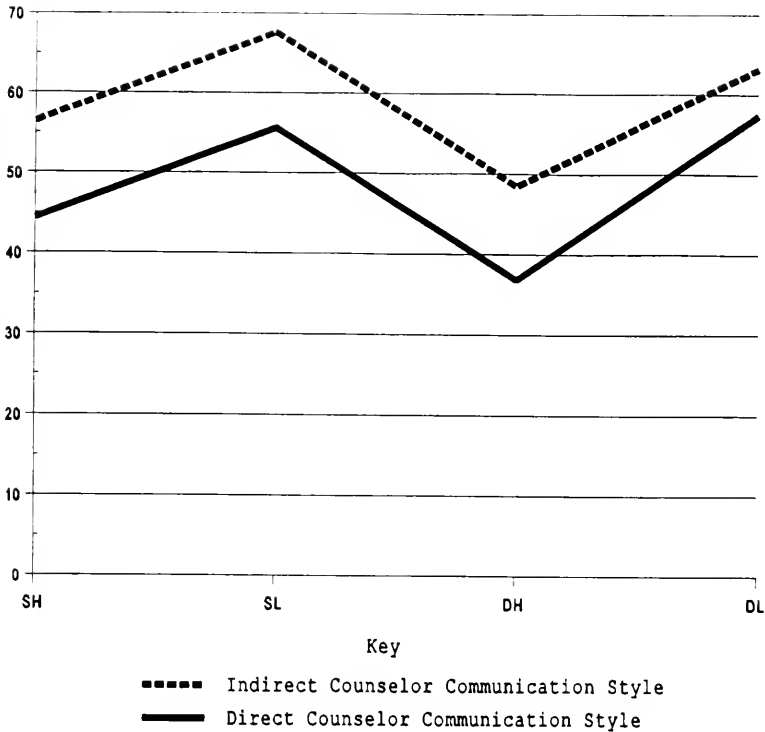
well as the overall Counselor Evaluation Inventory (includes both counseling effectiveness and client satisfaction).

These figures illustrate the trends and differences for the counseling outcome variables. Note, low means indicate more favorable responses while high means indicate less favorable responses on all the variables.

Figure 2

Geometric Representation of Means for the Eight Conditions
for Counseling Effectiveness

Mean Scores on Counseling Effectiveness

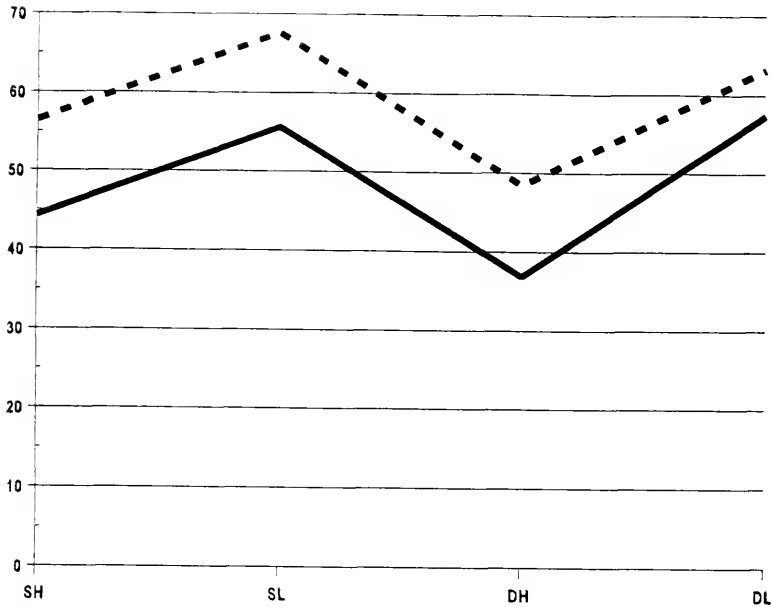


SH = Same Culture High Predisposition
 SL = Same Culture Low Predisposition
 DH = Different Culture High Predisposition
 DL = Different Culture Low Predisposition

Figure 3

Geometric Representation of Means for the Eight Conditions
for Client Satisfaction

Mean Scores on Client Satisfaction



Key:

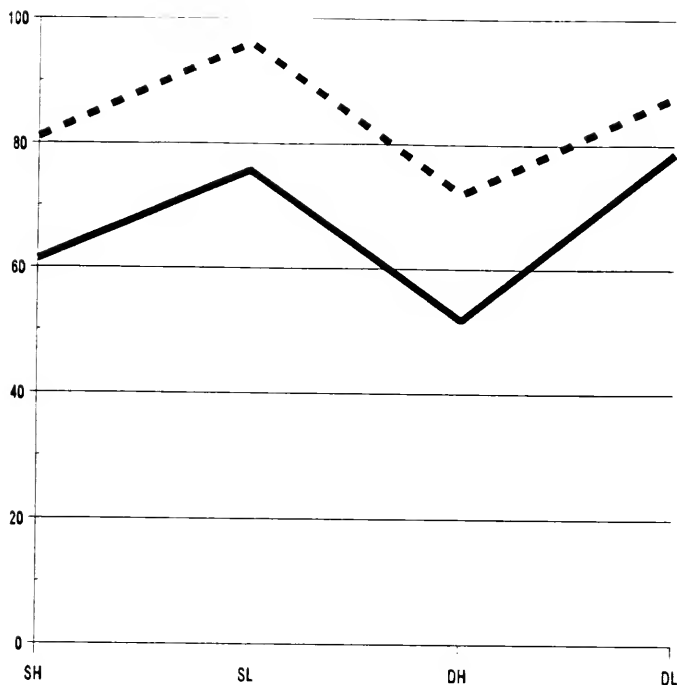
- Direct Counselor Communication Style
- - - Indirect Counselor Communication Style

SH = Same Culture High Predisposition
 SL = Same Culture Low Predisposition
 DH = Different Culture High Predisposition
 DL = Different Culture Low Predisposition

Figure 4

Geometric Representation of Means for the Eight conditions
for Counselor Evaluation Inventory

Mean Scores on Counselor Evaluation Inventory



Key:

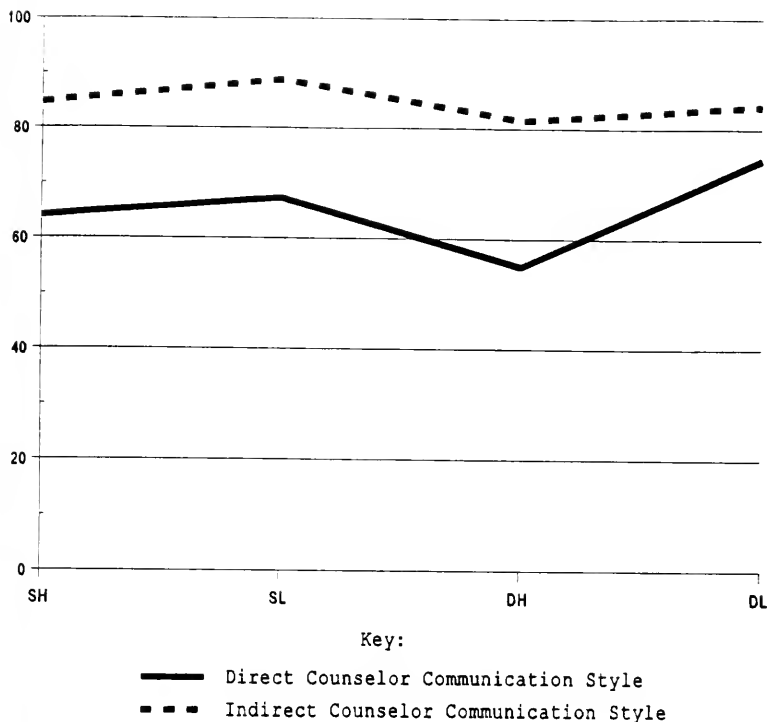
- Direct Counselor Communication Style
- - - Indirect Counselor Communication Style

SH = Same Culture High Predisposition
 SL = Same Culture Low Predisposition
 DH = Different Culture High Predisposition
 DL = Different Culture Low Predisposition

Figure 5

Geometric Representation of Means for the Eight Conditions
for Communication Satisfaction

Mean Scores on Communication Satisfaction

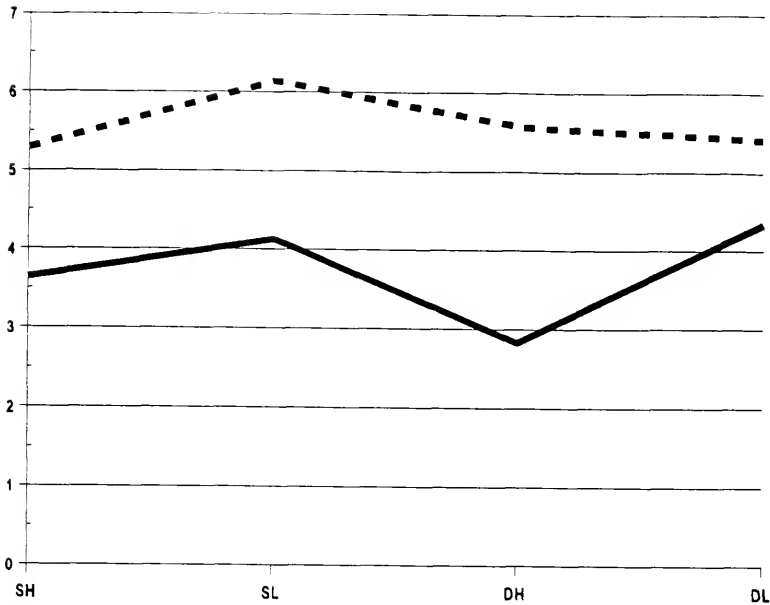


SH = Same Culture High Predisposition
 SL = Same Culture Low Predisposition
 DH = Different Culture High Predisposition
 DL = Different Culture Low Predisposition

Figure 6

Geometric Representation of Means for the Eight Conditions
for Likelihood of Return to Counseling

Mean Scores on Likelihood of Return to Counseling



Key:

- Direct Counselor Communication Style
 - - Indirect Counselor Communication Style

SH = Same Culture High Predisposition
 SL = Same Culture Low Predisposition
 DH = Different Culture High Predisposition
 DL = Different Culture Low Predisposition

As the previous figures illustrate, for all counseling outcomes, respondents with a high predisposition toward counseling evaluated a different cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad slightly more positively than a same-cultural composition when the counselor used a direct communication style. This trend held true for indirect counselor communication style for all counseling outcomes with the exception of likelihood of return to counseling. Cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad of same or different was not a significant issue for these subjects in their communication with counselors. One explanation may be that when a counselor from a different culture used a direct communication style uncertainty was reduced for the clients, resulting in positive evaluations to increase for the counselor.

Another explanation for the positive evaluations of different-culture counselor-client dyads may be due in part to the demographic makeup of the subject population. Because the subject population consisted of university students, that particular group is typically more exposed and sensitized to multicultural issues of diversity and racial consciousness than other segments of the population (Albert & Triandis, 1994). The possible multicultural awareness by subjects in this study may have had some bearing on the results.

Another viable explanation for the more positive evaluations in different-culture counselor-client dyads is that when a client seeks counseling about his or her social adjustment or mental health, communicating about this topic with someone totally different presented less risk. This explanation reflects the "stranger on the train" disclosure phenomenon. "The stranger on the train disclosure phenomenon is an example of a low cost intimacy investment made in what is predictably a short-term relationship" (Cline & Musolf, 1985, p. 44). Several reasons for this phenomenon include: (1) self-disclosure to a stranger may be less stigmatizing; (2) the stranger may be less judgmental than someone close to the discloser; and (3) what is self-disclosed has less chance of being shared with others in one's cultural, racial, or social group. These kinds of interactions with strangers and the reasons for them may possibly produce the gifts that the client is looking for when seeking help for social adjustment and mental health counseling.

Anderson and Ellis (1988) noted that in counseling Native American clients, the client may have an unwarranted fear that "because of the close social relationship inherent in the tribal culture....They often fear that whatever they say will be broadcast over the whole reservation (via the very effective "tribal telegraph") by sundown" (p. 123). Thus, a non-Native American counselor may have an advantage

in that he/she is not considered part of the "reservation" communication network. By extension, clients from a variety of cultures may possess this same attitude where disclosure of personal problems with someone similar may be more disadvantageous than with someone dissimilar.

Uncertainty Reduction and Power in Counseling Interactions

Results from this study revealed the uncertainty reduction model was comparatively better than the power model in predicting counseling outcomes associated with counselor communication style in initial interaction than the power model. Hypothesis 13, which stated that differences existed among the four counseling investment outcomes supported the uncertainty reduction model, while contrast, a parallel hypothesis to Hypothesis 13, Hypothesis 17 in the power model, was not supported. Likewise, Hypothesis 14, which stated that counseling investment outcomes are linearly related and decrease according to the ascending order of counseling investment levels for counseling outcomes was supported for the uncertainty reduction model, but a parallel hypothesis, Hypothesis 18 using the power model, was not supported. Thus, results revealed from a client's perspective, it is important for counselors to reduce the client's uncertainty in initial interactions. One way that counselors can reduce this uncertainty is through a direct communication style. Thus, a direct communication style, is a possible gift that

counselors can give to their clients in initial interactions.

The results of this study suggest that in initial counseling interactions, uncertainty reduction takes center stage in explaining how clients assess rewards and costs, and in turn make decisions about investing in counseling. However, the use of interpersonal power to explain how clients assess rewards and costs may simply be premature; that is uncertainty is particularly high in initial interactions, and thus clients may have a particularly strong need to have uncertainty reduced versus to be given the power to make their own decisions. However, in subsequent sessions, after the initial uncertainty is reduced, power may become more relevant in social exchange.

Individuals may assess rewards and costs differently in initial interactions versus in later interactions because types of data that people use to predict another's behavior may vary as a relationship develops. In the early stages of interactions between strangers in intercultural/interracial interactions, individuals tend to rely on cultural and sociological data to make predictions about another's behavior (Miller & Steinberg, 1975; Gudykunst, 1992). Cultural data includes information, for example, about an individual's race, ethnicity, and skin color. Sociological data consists of information about an individual's membership in particular social and class groups (Gudykunst,

1992). Uncertainty reduction may better explain how cultural and sociological data are obtained from a social exchange.

In contrast, as the relationship progresses and further interactions take place, individuals may start to use psychological data to predict the behavior of the other (Miller & Steinberg, 1975; Gudykunst, 1992). When psychological data are used, a differentiation is made between how the other is different or similar to other members in his or her group (Gudykunst, 1992). Power may better explain how psychological data are obtained from a social exchange.

A Revised Social Exchange Model Explaining the Role of Communication in Influencing Counseling Outcomes

Because neither the social exchange model tested in the present study received strong statistical support, a revised proposed her to explain the role of communication in influencing counseling outcomes. The Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes is comprised of two cost-reward factors: (1) the client's predisposition toward counseling, and (2) the counselor's communication style. Based on the results of the present study, cost and reward values are assessed for the two factors as they influence interactions with counselors. (See Table 35.)

The first factor in the Dillon Social Exchange Model is predisposition toward counseling. Because a client's high predisposition toward counseling influences counseling outcomes in positive ways, as shown in the present study, a high predisposition is considered a benefit and is indicated with a plus sign on Table 35. On the other hand, a client's low predisposition toward counseling is associated with negative counseling outcomes in the present study, and thus is a cost, indicated with a minus sign in Table 35.

The second factor in the Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes is counselor communication style. According to uncertainty reduction theory, as uncertainty is reduced, predictability increases. Because extant research, including the present study, supports the value of a direct communication style in reducing uncertainty, a client in initial interactions is likely to assess a counselor's direct communication style as a benefit, and is signified by a plus sign in Table 35. Accordingly, an indirect counselor communication carries less value potential, and is signified with a minus sign in Table 35.

In the Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes, the four possible combinations of the factors of predisposition toward counseling (high and low) and counselor communication style (direct and indirect) can be used to predict a client's

counseling investment levels. Benefits and costs are totaled across for each combination resulting in a possible range of benefits from 0 to 2. The number of benefits associated with each combination of factors places that combination of factors in a specific counseling investment level of I, II, or III. Therefore, according to the Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes, the ascending order of benefits corresponds with the descending order of counseling investment outcome levels.

A compelling advantage of the Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes is that the model is both theoretically and empirically grounded because the Model preserves the reward/cost system that results from different combinations of factors and the values that result from these combinations in counseling exchanges. A second advantage to the Dillon Revised Model of Social Exchange is that it places more emphasis on the communication between counselor and client and less on the cultural similarities and/or differences. The point is that a counselor can change his or her communication style, but cannot change his or her cultural background, ethnicity or race. Table 35 presents details of the Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining Communication and Counseling Outcomes.

Table 35

The Dillon Social Exchange Model for Explaining
Communication and Counseling Outcomes

	Factor 1 Value of Client's Predisposition Toward Counseling	Factor 2 Value of Counselor Communication Style	Predicted Counseling Investment Outcome Level
Counseling Exchange			
(1) HP-DS	+	+	I
(2) HP-IS	+	-	II
(3) LP-DS	-	+	II
(4) LP-IS	-	-	III

KEY:

HP = (Client's) High Predisposition toward counseling

LP = (Client's) Low Predisposition toward counseling

DS = (Counselor's) Direct communication Style

IS = (Counselor's) Indirect communication Style

+ = Reward

- = Cost

In summary, this study investigated the role of predisposition and communication influencing the outcomes in initial intercultural counseling interactions. Results did not support the predicted three-way interaction between predisposition toward counseling, cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad, and counselor communication style in influencing counseling outcomes. However, uncertainty

reduction theory was instrumental in explaining the findings while maintaining a social exchange theoretical framework to predict how clients assess the rewards and costs that result from initial counseling interactions. The findings were used to develop a social exchange model for explaining communication and counseling outcomes.

Limitations of the Present Study

Limitations are inherent in any investigation. One limitation of the present study involves the use of written scenarios-scripts. Face-to-face counseling interactions and/or the use of videotaped vignettes between counselors and clients may make cultural composition of the counseling dyad more salient than print instructions. Face-to-face interactions or videotaped stimuli might provide a more valid representation of a counseling interaction. Likewise, these stimuli enhance salience and reduce the inattentiveness that may occur when reading a scenario-script of comparable length.

A second limitation concerned the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale. Despite high reliability and validity coefficients, reservations remain about the content validity of one of the items on the Predisposition Toward Counseling Scale (PTC) to the counseling interaction under observation. Item six on the PTC, "A counseling center is okay for vocational and educational problems but not for personal and

social problems," seems to focus on the counseling center while the other items on the PTC focuses on the counselor.

To ensure accurate inferences for any investigation, questions about the validity of the scales that are implemented should be continually addressed by researchers (Graziano & Raulin, 1993; Ponterotto & Furlong, 1985). Future research stemming from this study must anticipate potential threats to validity and create procedures to eliminate or reduce these threats.

A third limitation involves the demographics of the subject population. All respondents in this study were university students. A sample that is more representative of the U.S. population would also yield more acute racial/subcultural differences in evaluations of the variables and the counseling outcomes investigated in this study. Understanding the racial identity development of individuals within particular racial and cultural groups, such as outlined by Helms (1984) model of racial consciousness would also make an important contribution to future research.

A fourth limitation was the topic of the script-scenarios. Although the topic employed in this study concerned social adjustments to a new university, other problems that are experienced by a wider segment of the population would be helpful in gaining insight into the

communication between counselors and clients in intercultural counseling.

Future Research in Communication
and Intercultural Counseling

Further research into communication in intercultural counseling is essential for understanding and appreciating the diversity of the population in the United States. Research in the future should also reflect the tremendous need to better understand particular racial groups that are increasing most rapidly in the United States. The following suggestions for future research are made based on both the results and the limitations of the present study.

First, future research should be conducted to test the Dillon Revised Model of Social Exchange presented in this chapter. Conclusions from a study of this kind would clarify the rewards/costs assessments and counselor-client made by clients as they decide to invest in counseling.

Second, research should focus on communication in intercultural counseling beyond initial interactions. Power may better explain how clients assess rewards and costs in subsequent sessions. A very interesting study would be to compare and contrast the social exchange model of uncertainty reduction and power in assessing counselor communication styles in interactions beyond the initial intercultural counseling interaction.

A third challenge for future research involves

the gifts that a client can give to a counselor in the initial communication interaction. Counseling consists of a transaction between two individuals where emphasis is on the mutual creation of shared messages and meanings (Lustig & Koester, 1993). For social exchange to occur, sentiments are exchanged between counselor and client, and rewards and costs are assessed by both parties. Therefore, a research study that takes into account counselors' assessments of rewards and costs from counseling interactions, and a comparison of a counselor's rewards and costs with those of the client's would prove to offer an interesting analysis.

Another study could focus on the transactional communication between counselor and client would be to contrast and compare what gifts a counselor believes he or she is providing the client with what the client believes are gifts being received. Cultural differences may carry a powerful influence in determining what constitutes a gift in intercultural counseling.

Finally, additional research is needed to confirm or dispute the findings of the present study. The failure of the present study to find interactions among predisposition toward counseling, counselor communication style, and cultural composition of the counselor-client dyad does not mean that further investigation in this area should be halted. Other counselor communication styles and/or

strategies (e.g. goal-setting, speech accommodation) should also be subjected to similar investigation.

Conclusion

The present analyses suggest some conclusions regarding communication in initial interracial interactions between counselors and clients. First, and foremost, the communication style the counselor used played the most significant role in determining outcomes for initial counseling interactions.

Communication plays a pivotal role not in only in context of counseling; communication also transcends to other contexts. As the United States becomes a more multicultural, multiracial, and multilingual society over the next few years the opportunities for individuals to communicate with others whose cultural background is different are becoming more commonplace (Sue, 1994). Therefore, it is crucial that individuals prepare themselves for a multicultural future in which all salient and significant factors of communication are considered.

APPENDIX A
SCENARIO/SCRIPTS DEPICTING COUNSELOR-CLIENT INTERACTION
(Scripts were authored by the investigator, Randy Dillon.)

Same Culture and Direct Communication Style

Assume you have been depressed about meeting other students and adjusting to a new school. You are meeting with a counselor for the first time to discuss these problems. The counselor is from the **SAME** cultural group as yours. Please put a check in front of this cultural group.

- (1) ☐ African American
- (2) ☐ Caucasian White American
- (3) ☐ Hispanic American
- (4) ☐ Native American
- (5) ☐ Other (please identify) _____.

You know that this counselor received a Ph.D. four years ago in counseling. This counselor has published major articles on the subject of counseling and is currently completing a book.

Please assume the role of the client in the following dialogue.

Client: Well, right now I don't see that many choices in making a decision.

Counselor: You've already come up with one--the possibility of transferring to another university. Let's talk about that further.

Client: I've been thinking a lot about transferring to another university, but if I did, I'd feel like I was avoiding, I was just quitting, like it's rough for me and I'd just be giving up instead of really trying.

Counselor: That's a consideration in leaving a university program. Are there other disadvantages? Let's talk about them.

Client: One of the things I'm thinking about is that- it's so impractical to just change universities. My parents and even I worry that if I leave and go somewhere else things may not be much better.

Counselor: What kind of information do you have about other universities?

Different Culture and Direct Communication Style

Assume you have been depressed about meeting other students and adjusting to a new school. You are meeting with a counselor for the first time to discuss these problems. Please put a check in front of the cultural group you consider **MOST DIFFERENT** from you.

- (1) _____ African American
- (2) _____ Caucasian White American
- (3) _____ Hispanic American

The counselor is from the cultural group you selected above. You know that this counselor received a Ph.D. four years ago in counseling. This counselor has published major articles on the subject of counseling and is currently completing a book.

Please assume the role of the client in the following dialogue.

Client: Well, right now I don't see that many choices in making a decision.

Counselor: You've already come up with one--the possibility of transferring to another university. Let's talk about that further.

Client: I've been thinking a lot about transferring to another university, but if I did, I'd feel like I was avoiding, I was just quitting, like it's rough for me and I'd just be giving up instead of really trying.

Counselor: That's a consideration in leaving a university program. Are there other disadvantages? Let's talk about them.

Client: One of the things I'm thinking about is that- it's so impractical to just change universities. My parents and even I worry that if I leave and go somewhere else things may not be much better.

Counselor: What kind of information do you have about other universities?

Same Culture and Indirect Communication Style

Assume you have been depressed about meeting other students and adjusting to a new school. You are meeting with a counselor for the first time to discuss these problems. The counselor is from the **SAME** cultural group as yours. Please put a check in front of this cultural group.

- (1) ☐ African American
- (2) ☐ Caucasian White American
- (3) ☐ Hispanic American
- (4) ☐ Native American
- (5) ☐ Other (please identify _____).

You know that this counselor received a Ph.D. four years ago in counseling. This counselor has published major articles on the subject of counseling and is currently completing a book.

Please assume the role of the client in the following dialogue.

Client: Well, right now I don't see that many choices in making a decision.

Counselor: It seems like there aren't many ways to come to a decision.

Client: I've been thinking a lot about transferring to another university, but if I did, I'd feel like I was avoiding, just quitting, like it's rough for me and I'd just be giving up instead of really trying.

Counselor: By changing universities you'd feel like you were quitting.

Client: One of the things I'm thinking about is that- it's so impractical to just change universities. My parents and even I worry that if I leave and go somewhere else things may not be much better.

Counselor: You think that by leaving here and going somewhere else there are chances you may be worse off.

Different Culture and Indirect Communication Style

Assume you have been depressed about meeting other students and adjusting to a new school. You are meeting with a counselor for the first time to discuss these problems. Please put a check in front of the cultural group you consider **MOST DIFFERENT** from you.

- (1) _____ African American
- (2) _____ Caucasian White American
- (3) _____ Hispanic American

The counselor is from the cultural group you selected above. You know that this counselor received a Ph.D four years ago in counseling. This counselor has published major articles on the subject of counseling and is currently completing a book.

Please assume the role of the client in the following dialogue.

Client: Well, right now I don't see that many choices in making a decision.

Counselor: It seems like there aren't many ways to come to a decision.

Client: I've been thinking a lot about transferring to another university, but if I did, I'd feel like I was avoiding, just quitting, like it's rough for me and I'd just be giving up instead of really trying.

Counselor: By changing universities you'd feel like you were quitting.

Client: One of the things I'm thinking about is that- it's so impractical to just change universities. My parents and even I worry that if I leave and go somewhere else things may not be much better.

Counselor: You think that by leaving here and going somewhere else there are chances you may be worse off.

APPENDIX B
PREDISPOSITION TOWARD COUNSELING SCALE
(Snyder, Hill, and Derksen, 1972)

DIRECTIONS: The statements below concern whether a person might choose to go to a counselor or not go to a counselor. Presume you have completely free choice. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number that best represents your view.

For example, if you strongly agree with the following statement you would circle 1;

The other person moved around a lot.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

1. A stranger couldn't really understand my problems.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. My problems are none of a counselor's business.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. It's best to solve you own problems.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. Anything the counselor might conclude about me
would probably be inaccurate.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

5. Talks with a counselor can be tension-releasing.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

6. A counseling center is okay for vocational and
educational problems but not for personal and social
problems.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

7. Counselors should only be concerned with areas of vocational adjustment.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

8. Counselors are effective in helping to solve personal problems.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

9. My personal problems are important enough to bring to counseling.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

10. For some of my problems, I would go to a counselor.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

11. If someone I'm close to suggested I go to a counselor, I probably would go.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

APPENDIX C
COUNSELING EVALUATION INVENTORY
(Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965)

DIRECTIONS: Based upon the scenario that you have read between a counselor and a client, assume the role of the client. Presume you have completely free choice. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by circling the number below that best represents your view.

For example, if you strongly agree with the following statement you would circle 1;

The other person moved around a lot.

Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

1. I would feel the counselor accepts me as an individual.
Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

2. I would feel comfortable in my interviews with this counselor.

Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

3. The counselor would act as though my concerns and problems were important.

Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

4. The counselor would act uncertain of him/herself.

Strongly Agree Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

5. The counselor would act cold and distant.

Strongly Agree								Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

6. I would feel at ease with this counselor.

Strongly Agree									Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	

7. The counselor would seem restless talking to me.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

8. In our talks, the counselor would act as if he/she were better than I.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

9. The counselor's comments would help me to see more clearly what I need to do to gain my objectives in life.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

10. I believe the counselor would have a genuine desire to be of service to me.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

11. The counselor would be awkward in starting our interviews.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

12. I would feel satisfied as a result of talking with the counselor.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

13. The counselor would be very patient.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

14. Other students could be helped by talking with counselors.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

15. In opening our conversations, the counselor would be relaxed and at ease.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

16. I would distrust the counselor.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

17. The counselor would insist on being right always.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Strongly Disagree

18. The counselor would give the impression of "feeling at ease."

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

19. The counselor would act as if he/she had a job to do and didn't care how it was accomplished.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

20. I would return to this counselor for a second counseling session.

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

APPENDIX D
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SATISFACTION INVENTORY
(Hecht, 1978)

Assuming the role of the client, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement describing the communication with the counselor in the scenario by circling the number that best represents your view.

1. The counselor let me know that I was communicating effectively.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
2. Nothing was accomplished.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
3. I would like to have another conversation like this one.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
4. The counselor genuinely wanted to get to know me.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
5. I was very disssatisfied with the conversation.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
6. The counselor showed me that he/she understood what I said.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
7. I was very satisfied with the conversation.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree
8. The counselor expressed a lot of interest in what I had to say.
Strongly Agree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Strongly Disagree

9. I did NOT enjoy the conversation.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

10. The counselor did NOT provide support for what he/she was saying.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

11. I felt I could talk about anything with this counselor.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

12. We each got to say what we wanted.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

13. The conversation flowed smoothly.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

14. The counselor said things that added little to the conversation.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

15. The counselor made me feel comfortable.

Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Strongly Disagree
8 9

APPENDIX E
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR RESPONDENTS

Please provide the following information about yourself:

1. Sex: (1) _____ Male (2) _____ Female
2. Age: _____ Years
3. Race: (1) _____ Asian (2) _____ African American
(3) _____ White (4) _____ Hispanic
(5) _____ Other _____
(Please identify)
4. Year in School:
(1) _____ Freshman (2) _____ Sophomore
(3) _____ Junior (4) _____ Senior
5. Have you ever been to a counselor/psychotherapist
for a personal problem?
(1) _____ Yes (2) _____ No

APPENDIX F
STATISTICAL TABLES

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Counseling Effectiveness

Counselor Communication Style	Cultural Dyad	Predis- position	Mean	S.D.	n
Direct	Same	High	44.31	16.57	36
		Low	55.67	17.25	24
	Different	High	36.86	12.43	29
		Low	57.41	15.59	29
Indirect	Same	High	56.43	15.11	23
		Low	67.61	18.95	28
	Different	High	48.46	17.17	26
		Low	63.16	14.02	32

Direct	Same		48.85	17.64	60
	Different		47.14	17.40	58
Indirect	Same		62.57	17.92	51
	Different		56.57	17.05	58

Direct		High	40.98	15.22	65
		Low	56.62	16.22	53
Indirect		High	52.20	16.57	49
		Low	65.23	16.51	60

Direct Indirect	Same	High	49.03	16.97	59
		Low	62.10	18.99	52
	Different	High	42.35	15.84	55
		Low	60.43	14.94	61
			48.01	17.48	118
			59.38	17.65	109
	Same		55.15	18.94	111
		Different		51.85	17.78
	High		45.81	16.70	114
		Low		61.19	16.87
Total for Sample			53.47	16.78	227

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Client Satisfaction

Counselor Communication Style	Cultural Dyad	Predis- position	Mean	S.D.	n
Direct	Same	High	17.00	1.18	36
		Low	20.04	1.63	24
	Different	High	14.86	6.34	29
		Low	21.24	6.35	29
Indirect	Same	High	24.46	7.82	24
		Low	28.50	9.77	28
	Different	High	23.58	9.67	26
		Low	24.64	5.29	33

Direct	Same		18.22	7.53	60
	Different		18.05	7.10	58
Indirect	Same		26.63	8.95	52
	Different		24.17	7.49	59
Direct		High	16.05	6.80	65
		Low	20.70	7.10	53
Indirect		High	24.00	8.76	50
		Low	26.41	7.85	61
	Same	High	19.98	8.21	60
		Low	24.60	9.88	52
	Different	High	18.98	9.13	55
		Low	23.05	6.01	62
Direct			18.14	7.28	118
			25.32	8.29	111
Indirect	Same		22.13	9.23	112
		Different	21.14	7.87	117
		High	19.50	8.64	115
		Low	23.75	8.01	114
Total for Sample			21.62	8.58	229

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Counselor Evaluation Inventory

Counselor Communication Style	Cultural Dyad	Predis- position	Mean	S.D.	n
Direct	Same	High	61.31	3.82	36
		Low	75.71	4.64	24
	Different	High	51.72	18.12	29
		Low	78.66	18.75	29
Indirect	Same	High	80.96	21.71	23
		Low	96.11	25.60	28
	Different	High	72.04	24.92	26
		Low	87.69	17.13	32

Direct	Same		67.07	23.73	60
	Different		65.19	22.77	58
Indirect	Same		89.27	24.63	51
	Different		80.67	22.22	58
Direct		High	57.03	21.29	65
		Low	77.32	20.48	53
Indirect		High	76.22	23.66	49
		Low	91.62	21.73	60
	Same	High	68.97	24.26	59
		Low	86.69	26.17	52
	Different	High	61.33	23.71	55
		Low	83.39	18.34	61
Direct			66.14	23.20	118
Indirect			84.70	23.71	109
	Same		77.27	26.47	111
		Different	72.93	23.71	116
		High	65.28	24.19	114
		Low	84.91	22.24	113
Total for Sample			75.05	25.19	227

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Communication Satisfaction

Counselor Communication Style	Cultural Dyad	Predis- position	Mean	S.D.	n
Direct	Same	High	64.09	4.23	35
		Low	67.39	3.83	23
	Different	High	54.93	24.18	29
		Low	74.57	17.13	30
Indirect	Same	High	84.71	20.08	24
		Low	88.89	24.70	27
	Different	High	81.54	24.32	26
		Low	84.19	18.04	32

Direct	Same		65.40	22.35	58
	Different		64.92	22.96	59
Indirect	Same		86.92	22.13	51
	Different		83.00	20.93	58
Direct		High	59.94	24.87	64
		Low	71.45	17.87	53
Indirect		High	83.06	22.21	50
		Low	86.34	21.28	59
	Same	High	72.47	25.12	59
		Low	79.00	24.34	50
	Different	High	67.51	27.51	55
		Low	79.53	18.12	62
Direct			66.14	22.56	118
Indirect			84.70	21.52	109
	Same		77.27	24.65	111
		Different		72.93	23.69
		High	70.08	26.30	114
		Low	79.29	21.02	113
Total for Sample			75.05	24.22	227

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for
Likelihood of Return to Counseling

Counselor Communication Style	Cultural Dyad	Predis- position	Mean	S.D.	n
Direct	Same	High	3.64	.36	36
		Low	4.13	.45	24
	Different	High	2.93	.31	29
		Low	4.34	.40	29
Indirect	Same	High	5.29	2.55	24
		Low	6.14	2.34	28
	Different	High	5.58	2.64	26
		Low	5.42	2.14	33

Direct	Same		3.83	2.15	60
	Different		3.59	2.06	58
Indirect	Same		5.75	2.40	52
	Different		5.49	2.35	59
Direct		High	3.28	1.98	65
		Low	4.25	2.16	53
Indirect		High	5.44	2.57	50
		Low	5.75	2.24	61
	Same	High	4.30	2.43	60
		Low	5.21	2.48	52
	Different	High	4.13	2.58	55
		Low	4.92	2.19	62
Direct			3.71	2.10	118
Indirect			5.61	2.37	111
	Same		4.72	2.45	112
		Different		4.55	2.40
		High	4.22	2.49	115
		Low	5.05	2.32	114
Total for Sample			4.63	2.44	229

Table 8

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Counseling Effectiveness

Source of Variation	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	F
Predisposition (P)	11987.32	1	11987.32	47.08*
Culture (C)	1167.78	1	1167.78	4.59*
Communication Style (CS)	5679.99	1	5679.99	22.31*
P x C	581.77	1	581.77	2.29
P x CS	135.78	1	135.78	.53
C x CS	158.55	1	158.55	.62
P x C x CS	111.83	1	111.83	.43
Error	55762.47	219	254.62	

*p< .05

Table 9

Summary of Analysis of Variance for Client Satisfaction

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
Predisposition (P)	755.59	1	755.59	13.33*
Culture (C)	128.65	1	128.65	2.24
Communication Style (CS)	2678.30	1	2678.30	46.55*
P x C	.98	1	.98	.02
P x CS	71.93	1	71.93	1.25
C x CS	51.06	1	51.06	.89
P x C x CS	140.36	1	140.36	2.44
Error	12714.66	221	57.53	

*p < .05

Table 10

Summary of Analysis of Variance
for Communication Satisfaction

Source of Variation	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	F
Predisposition (P)	3327.85	1	3327.85	7.01*
Culture (C)	399.57	1	399.57	.84
Communication Style (CS)	20359.15	1	20359.15	42.86*
P x C	815.74	1	815.74	1.72
P x CS	996.48	1	996.48	2.10
C x CS	115.62	1	115.62	.24
P x C x CS	1106.68	1	1106.68	2.33
Error	103566.41	221	475.08	

* $p < .05$

Table 11

Summary of Analysis of Variance
for Likelihood of Return to Counseling

Source of Variation	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	F
Predisposition (P)	25.30	1	25.30	5.09*
Culture (C)	4.92	1	4.92	.99
Communication Style (CS)	192.58	1	192.58	38.75*
P x C	.02	1	.02	.01
P x CS	6.60	1	6.60	1.33
C x CS	.09	1	.09	.02
P x C x CS	14.55	1	14.55	2.93
Error	1098.41	221	4.97	

*p< .05

Table 12

Pearson-Product Moment Correlations Among Dependent Variables

	CEF	CLS	CS	RET
Counseling Effectiveness (CEF)	--	.70	.66	.63
Client Satisfaction (CLS)		--	.76	.79
Communication Satisfaction (CS)			--	.75
Likelihood of Return to Counseling (RET)				--

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for Four Counseling Investment Outcome Levels in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Dependent Variable	Level	Mean	S.D.	n
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
	I	44.31	16.57	36
	II	48.72	17.43	76
	III	58.05	18.75	83
	IV	63.16	14.02	32
	Total	53.47	18.43	227
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
	I	17.00	7.10	36
	II	19.47	8.29	77
	III	24.42	9.12	83
	IV	24.64	5.29	33
	Total	21.62	8.58	229
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
	I	64.09	25.01	35
	II	68.11	24.42	76
	III	81.41	22.65	83
	IV	84.19	18.04	32
	Total	74.65	24.22	226
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
	I	3.64	2.14	36
	II	4.00	2.36	77
	III	5.34	2.47	83
	IV	5.42	2.14	33
	Total	4.63	2.44	229

Table 14

Analyses of Variance for Groups in Level II
in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

<u>Dependent Variable</u> Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level II	6231.37	2	3115.68	14.41*
Error	15570.58	72	216.26	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level II	1217.10	2	608.55	11.02*
Error	3977.62	72	55.25	
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level II	11574.58	2	5787.29	12.61*
Error	33032.30	72	458.78	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level II	79.11	2	39.56	8.36*
Error	340.83	72	4.73	

* $p < .05$

Table 15

Followup Tests for Groups in Level II
in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

<u>Dependent Variable</u>	Contrast	M	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>	Group 2	36.86	-4.70	73	.001*
	Group 3	56.43			
	Group 2	36.86	-4.58	73	.001*
	Group 5	55.67			
	Group 3	56.43	0.18	73	.860
	Group 5	55.67			
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>	Group 2	14.86	-4.72	74	.001*
	Group 3	24.46			
	Group 2	14.86	-2.55	74	.013*
	Group 5	20.04			
	Group 3	24.46	2.08	74	.041*
	Group 5	20.04			
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>	Group 2	54.93	-5.07	73	.001*
	Group 3	84.71			
	Group 2	54.93	-2.10	73	.039*
	Group 5	67.39			
	Group 3	84.71	2.79	73	.007*
	Group 5	67.39			
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>	Group 2	2.83	-4.16	74	.001*
	Group 3	5.29			
	Group 2	2.83	-2.19	74	.032*
	Group 5	4.13			
	Group 3	5.29	1.88	74	.064
	Group 5	4.13			

* $p < .05$

Table 16

Analyses of Variance for Groups in Level III
in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Dependent Variable

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level III	4996.08	2	2498.04	8.28*
Error	23828.90	79	301.63	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level III	867.83	2	433.92	5.82*
Error	5886.62			
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level III	2778.17	2	1389.09	2.81
Error	39101.89	79	494.96	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level III	52.94	2	26.47	4.75*
Error	440.09	79	5.57	

* $p < .001$

Table 17

Followup Tests for Groups in Level III
in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

<u>Dependent Variable</u>	Contrast	M	t	df	p
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>	Group 4	48.46	-1.92	80	.059
	Group 6	57.41			
	Group 4	48.46	-4.07	80	<.001*
	Group 7	67.61			
	Group 6	57.41	-2.23	80	.029*
	Group 7	55.67			
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>	Group 4	23.58	1.00	80	.323
	Group 6	21.24			
	Group 4	23.58	-2.08	80	.041*
	Group 7	28.50			
	Group 6	21.24	-3.15	80	.002*
	Group 7	28.50			
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>	Group 4	81.54	1.18	80	.024*
	Group 6	74.57			
	Group 4	81.54	-1.21	80	.230
	Group 7	88.89			
	Group 6	74.57	-2.44	80	.017*
	Group 7	88.89			
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>	Group 4	5.58	1.92	80	.060
	Group 6	4.34			
	Group 4	5.58	-0.88	80	.384
	Group 7	6.14			
	Group 6	4.34	-2.86	80	.005*
	Group 7				

* $p < .05$

Table 18

Analyses of Variance Among the Four Counseling Investment Outcome Levels in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Dependent Variable

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level	10064.49	3	3354.83	11.15*
Error	65898.28	219	300.91	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level	2109.23	3	703.08	10.58*
Error	14559.49	219	66.48	
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level	14210.67	3	4736.89	8.81*
Error	117733.43	219	537.60	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level	136.47	3	45.49	8.20*
Error	1215.11	219	5.55	

*p< .001

Table 19

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Counseling Effectiveness in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Contrast Levels	M	t	df	p
Level I	44.31	-1.26	223	.21
Level II	48.72			
Level I	44.31	-3.96	223	<.001
Level III	58.05			
Level I	44.31	-4.47	223	<.001
Level IV	63.16			
Level II	48.72	-3.38	223	.001
Level III	58.05			
Level II	48.72	-3.94	223	<.001
Level IV	63.16			
Level III	58.05	-1.41	223	.159
Level IV	63.16			

Table 20

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Client Satisfaction in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Contrast Levels	M	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Level I	17.00	-1.51	225	.013
Level II	19.47			
Level I	17.00	-4.60	225	<.001
Level III	24.42			
Level I	17.00	-3.92	225	<.001
Level IV	24.64			
Level II	19.47	-3.87	225	<.001
Level III	24.42			
Level II	19.47	-3.07	225	.002
Level IV	24.64			
Level III	24.42	-0.12	225	.897
Level IV	24.64			

Table 21

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Communication Satisfaction in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Contrast Levels	M	t	df	p
Level I	64.09	-0.85	222	.395
Level II	68.11			
Level I	64.09	-3.73	222	<.001
Level III	81.41			
Level I	64.09	-3.56	222	<.001
Level IV	84.19			
Level II	68.11	-3.63	222	<.001
Level III	81.41			
Level II	68.11	-3.31	222	.001
Level IV	84.19			
Level III	81.41	-0.58	222	.563
Level IV	84.19			

Table 22

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Likelihood of Return To Counseling in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Contrast Levels	M	t	df	p
Level I	3.64	-0.77	225	.445
Level II	4.00			
Level I	3.64	-3.64	225	<.001
Level III	5.34			
Level I	3.64	-3.17	225	.002
Level IV	5.42			
Level II	4.00	-3.62	225	<.001
Level III	5.34			
Level II	4.00	-2.93	225	.004
Level IV	5.42			
Level III	5.34	-0.18	225	.857
Level IV	5.42			

Table 23

Correlations Between the Dependent Variables and Counseling Investment Level in the Uncertainty Reduction Model

Variable	n	r	p
Counseling Effectiveness	227	.35	<.001
Client Satisfaction	229	.33	<.001
Communication Satisfaction	226	.31	<.001
Likelihood of Return to Counseling	229	.28	<.001

Table 24

Descriptive Statistics for the Counseling Investment Levels
in the Power Model

Dependent Variable	Investment Level	Mean	S.D.	n
Counseling Effectiveness				
	I	56.43	15.11	23
	II	52.76	20.09	90
	III	52.07	18.33	85
	IV	57.41	15.59	29
	Total	53.47	18.59	227
Client Satisfaction				
	I	24.46	7.82	24
	II	22.48	9.95	90
	III	20.06	7.66	86
	IV	21.24	6.36	29
	Total	21.62	8.58	229
Counselor Evaluation Inventory				
	I	80.96	21.71	23
	II	75.23	28.24	90
	III	72.04	24.46	85
	IV	78.66	18.75	29
	Total	75.05	18.75	227
Communication Satisfaction				
	I	84.71	20.08	24
	II	76.85	26.71	88
	III	69.49	23.81	84
	IV	74.57	17.13	30
	Total	74.64	24.22	226
Likelihood of Return to Counseling				
	I	5.29	2.54	24
	II	4.98	2.58	90
	III	4.19	2.28	86
	IV	4.34	2.14	29
	Total	4.63	2.44	229

Table 25

Analyses of Variance for Groups in Level II in the Power ModelDependent Variable

Source of Variation	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level II	9436.25	2	4718.12	15.24*
Error	26311.47	85	309.55	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level II	2260.74	2	1130.37	14.78*
Error	6502.85	85	76.50	
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level II	10187.21	2	5093.61	8.34*
Error	51899.87	85	610.59	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level II	120.07	2	60.03	10.86*
Error	469.93	85	5.53	

* $p < .05$

Table 26

Followup Tests for Groups in Level II in the Power Model

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Contrast</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Counseling Effectiveness	Group 1	44.31	-0.92	87	.359
	Group 4	48.46			
	Group 1	44.31	-5.28	87	<.001*
	Group 7	67.61			
	Group 4	48.46	-4.01	87	.001*
	Group 7	67.61			
Client Satisfaction	Group 1	17.00	-2.92	87	.005*
	Group 4	23.58			
	Group 1	17.00	-5.21	87	<.001*
	Group 7	28.50			
	Group 4	23.58	-2.06	87	.042*
	Group 7	28.50			
Communication Satisfaction	Group 1	64.09	-2.73	85	.008*
	Group 4	81.54			
	Group 1	64.09	-3.92	85	<.001*
	Group 7	88.89			
	Group 4	81.54	-1.08	85	.282
	Group 7	88.89			
Likelihood of Return to Counseling	Group 1	3.64	-3.20	87	.002*
	Group 4	5.58			
	Group 1	3.64	-4.22	87	<.001*
	Group 7	6.14			
	Group 4	5.58	-0.88	87	.380
	Group 7	6.14			

* $p < .05$

Table 27

Analyses of Variance in Level III in the Power ModelDependent Variable

Source of Variation	SS	<u>df</u>	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level III	10883.96	2	5441.98	26.33*
Error	16532.67	80	206.66	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level III	1445.30	2	722.65	16.83*
Error	3434.66	80	42.93	
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level III	13247.30	2	6623.65	15.69*
Error	33781.08	80	422.26	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level III	105.93	2	52.97	12.62*
Error	335.71	80	4.20	

* $p < .05$

Table 28

Followup Tests for Groups in Level III in the Power Model

<u>Dependent Variable</u>	<u>Contrast</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>	Group 2	36.86	-4.70	82	<.001
	Group 5	55.67			
	Group 2	36.86	-7.07	82	<.001
	Group 8	63.16			
	Group 5	55.67	-1.91	82	.059
	Group 8	63.16			
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>	Group 2	14.86	-2.89	83	.005
	Group 5	20.04			
	Group 2	14.86	-5.92	83	<.001
	Group 8	24.64			
	Group 5	20.04	-2.64	83	.010
	Group 8	24.64			
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>	Group 2	54.93	-2.18	81	.032
	Group 5	67.39			
	Group 2	54.93	-5.58	81	<.001
	Group 8	84.19			
	Group 5	67.39	-3.00	81	.004
	Group 8	84.19			
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>	Group 2	2.83	-2.33	83	.022
	Group 5	4.13			
	Group 2	2.83	-5.05	83	<.001
	Group 8	5.42			
	Group 5	4.13	-2.40	83	.019
	Group 8	5.42			

Table 29

Analyses of Variance Among the Four Counseling Investment Outcome Levels in the Power Model

<u>Dependent Variable</u>				
Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F
<u>Counseling Effectiveness</u>				
Level	971.73	3	323.91	.95
Error	74991.03	219	342.43	
<u>Client Satisfaction</u>				
Level	488.13	3	162.71	2.20
Error	16180.59	219	73.88	
<u>Communication Satisfaction</u>				
Level	5128.92	3	1709.64	2.95*
Error	126815.18	219	579.07	
<u>Likelihood of Return to Counseling</u>				
Level	42.52	3	14.17	2.37
Error	1309.06	219	6.09	
*p< .05				

Table 30

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Counseling Effectiveness in the Power Model

Contrast	M	t	df	p
Level I Level II	56.43 52.76	0.85	223	.394
Level I Level III	56.43 52.07	1.01	223	.315
Level I Level IV	56.43 57.41	-0.19	223	.849
Level II Level III	52.76 52.07	0.25	223	.806
Level II Level IV	52.76 57.41	-1.18	223	.238
Level III Level IV	52.07 57.41	-1.35	223	.180

Table 31

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Client Satisfaction in the Power Model

Contrast	M	t	df	p
Level I	24.46	1.04	44.9	.305
Level II	22.48			
Level I	24.46	2.45	36.2	.019
Level III	20.06			
Level I	24.46	1.62	44.2	.112
Level IV	21.62			
Level II	22.48	1.81	166.4	.071
Level III	20.06			
Level II	22.48	0.78	75.0	.436
Level IV	21.62			
Level III	20.06	-0.82	57.5	.415
Level IV	21.62			

Table 32

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Outcome Levels for Communication Satisfaction in the Power Model

Contrast	M	<u>t</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>p</u>
Level I Level II	84.71 76.85	1.57	47.6	.122
Level I Level III	84.71 69.49	3.14	43.3	.003
Level I Level IV	84.71 74.57	1.97	45.4	.055
Level II Level III	76.85 69.49	1.91	169.2	.058
Level II Level IV	76.85 74.57	0.54	78.9	.590
Level III Level IV	69.49 74.57	-1.25	71.0	.216

Table 33

A priori Contrasts (LSD) Among Counseling Investment Levels
for Likelihood of Return to Counseling
in the Power Model

Contrast	M	t	df	p
Level I Level II	5.29 4.98	0.57	225	.570
Level I Level III	5.29 4.19	1.98	225	.049
Level I Level IV	5.29 4.34	1.42	225	.157
Level II Level III	4.98 4.19	2.17	225	.031
Level II Level IV	4.98 4.34	1.23	225	.221
Level III Level IV	4.19 4.34	-0.31	225	.760

Table 34

Correlations Between Dependent Variables and Counseling
Investment Levels in the Power Model

Dependent Variable	n	r	p
Counseling Effectiveness	227	.01	.858
Client Satisfaction	229	-.13	.040
Communication Satisfaction	226	-.15	.028
Likelihood of Return to Counseling	229	-.15	.022

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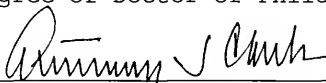
BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Randy Keith Dillon, son of Everett Henry and Judy McCauley Dillon was born July 27, 1962, in Harrisonville, Missouri. He attended public schools in Missouri and received the degree Bachelor of Arts in mass communication and English) from The College of the Ozarks, Point Lookout, Missouri, in May 1984. He received the Master of Science degree in speech communication from The University of Southwestern Louisiana, Lafayette, Louisiana, in December 1985.

After receiving his MS degree, Mr. Dillon worked in public relations in Dallas, Texas. In 1986 he went to Japan, and later to South Korea, where he taught English. He also worked as a media liaison for the Seoul Olympic Organizing Committee at the 1988 Summer Olympics. After traveling throughout Asia and Europe for almost a year he returned to the United States in 1990, and worked for Microsoft Corporation in Seattle, Washington.

In August 1991, Mr. Dillon entered the Graduate School, University of Florida, and received the degree Doctor of Philosophy December 1994.

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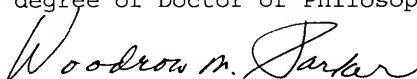
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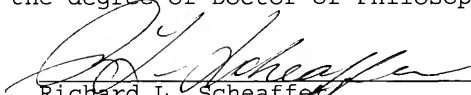
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